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Supervisory/non-supervisory mentoring in the public sector : Outcomes for protégé development

Richard Douglas Dunstan James
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**Supervisory/Non-supervisory Mentoring in the Public Sector:
Outcomes for Protégé Development.**

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Award of:

Master of Business
(Human Resource Management)

at the Faculty of Business, School of Management,
Edith Cowan University.

Richard Douglas James Dunstan

February 1999

USE OF THESIS

The Use of Thesis statement is not included in this version of the thesis.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the provision of mentoring functions, specifically providing an analysis of the contrast between those functions provided to protégés by both mentors and supervisors. Thus, the study focused on two relationships maintained by the subordinate: the relationship with their supervisor and that with their mentor.

Research dealing with the functions mentors are perceived to provide to the protégé was examined extensively. Additionally, research which indicates that supervisors may perform mentoring functions is presented. This includes Situational Leadership Theory, Leader member Exchange and Transformational and Transactional Leadership.

The functions provided by mentors and elaborated in research by Kram (1985) and Noe (1988), among others, form the basis for both qualitative and quantitative research in this study. An assessment of the potential mentoring benefit accruing from each relationship was made by measuring the functions provided by both supervisors and mentors, as perceived by subordinates.

Results indicated that supervisors generally provided both career-related and psychosocial mentoring functions to a greater extent than mentors. Relationships of significant strength were found to exist between both the demographic proximity and interaction levels of respondents and mentors and the provision of mentoring functions. Very little support was found for relationships between these factors and supervisory mentoring relationships. Additionally, several barriers were identified which influenced respondent's mentoring relationships with both their mentor and supervisor. Overall, this study found that supervisors provided subordinates with a significant level of mentoring support compared to that provided by mentors.

Declaration

I certify that this thesis does not, to the best of my knowledge and belief:

- (i) incorporate without acknowledgment, any material previously submitted for a degree or a diploma in any institution or higher education;
- (ii) contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text;
- (iii) or contain any defamatory material.

Signature: _____

Richard D. J. Dunstan

Date: 22nd February 1999

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Chapter One **Introduction**

1.1 **Background to the research**

Mentoring has gained significant interest in the business arena in the last two decades as organisations, and more specifically human resource professionals, have become aware of the benefits which may accrue for employees and organisations.

A recent survey conducted in the U.S. (Frazee, 1997) asked approximately 150 senior executives from varied organisations how important they believe the process of mentoring to be for junior employees - either on a formal or informal basis. Results indicated that 96% of respondents felt mentoring to be either extremely important (57%) or somewhat important (39%). Although this may appear to be a rather leading question, these results do show a general level of support for mentoring.

The establishment of mentoring programs in organisations has gained impetus from, and been attributed in part to, the many and varied successes associated with mentoring. In the context of employee development, mentoring has been seen as complementary to performance appraisal and management development techniques. Indeed mentoring has been linked to performance appraisal and career-development systems (Burke and McKeen, 1989). While mentoring can provide information on an employee's performance (Wilson and Elman, 1990), this is generally not viewed by exponents to be a primary function. Generally performance from the mentoring perspective is one of personal development rather than one of formal appraisal.

Additionally mentoring has been identified as a very important method for improving the commitment and self-esteem of newcomers to the organisation, both in the short and long-term.

Other stimuli for the establishment of mentoring has been the practice of fast-tracking talented employees, job rotation and multi-skilling and the establishment of affirmative-action programs (Hunt and Michael, 1983; Zey, 1988). These programs gained initial interest as organisations attempted to deal equitably with minorities and women. Indeed it may have been “one of the first managerial fixations whose popular origins can be traced to a concern with women’s careers rather than men’s.” (Fury, 1980, in Murray, 1991:9).

In terms of management development, some of the criticisms of Australian management practices observed and tabled by Mant (1994) have, in the last decade or so, been tackled through the adoption of mentoring programs. That is, the all-male culture of Australian management has been addressed with some success by mentoring. Such programs have had affirmative action as their focus, with the aim of improving the career progress of female executives and managers.

Increasingly, as cross-cultural organisations become the norm and organisations take measures to influence their cultures positively, the challenges posed by the increased diversity this brings may be partially met by mentoring (Karpin, 1995, Zey 1988). This is because mentoring has been linked with the socialisation of new employees, consistent with the attitudes, values and assumptions of the organisation (Gunn, 1995; Kaye and Jacobson, 1995; Karpin, 1995).

The retirement of the baby-boomer generation may put significant pressure on organisations to establish effective succession planning practices (Kaye and Jacobson, 1995). As the population and so the workforce ages, passing the baton from older existing employees to younger newcomers while maintaining

organisational effectiveness is a challenge being addressed to some extent by the adoption of mentoring programs (Zey, 1988).

Because of the flat nature of the promotional pyramid in hierarchical organisations, employee development and training through mentoring has been considered beneficial to protégés, mentors and organisations (Zey, 1988; Karpin, 1995). With flatter organisations the scope for management development and so mentoring may be far greater as a larger number of employees have responsibility for the day-to-day operations. Mentoring may help employees to master the skills that they require in order to deal with increasingly complex issues and tasks (Murray, 1991). Thus mentoring has been proposed as a way of providing flexible and responsive learning and development for all employees. An organisation's ability to learn at a rate faster than its competition is a significant advantage in this fast changing business world (Bell, 1996). It is in contexts such as these that initial forays into mentoring have been undertaken by organisations.

Research into mentoring stemmed initially from research into social learning theory and organisational socialisation (Klaus, 1981; Levinson et al., 1978). Such research has since focused on aspects including the benefits derived from mentoring for both protégés, mentors and the organisation, the functions provided and roles performed by mentors, phases of mentoring relationships, gender issues in mentoring and the development of models for establishing mentoring programs.

Researchers have identified benefits from mentoring in terms of what it may provide the protégé, the mentor and the organisation (Kram, 1985b; Klaus, 1981; Burke, 1984; Burke, McKeen and McKenna, 1994; Jacoby, 1989). Generally mentoring programs have been seen to improve the performance of both parties to the relationship, reduce turnover, fast track talented employees, provide incentives for management contribution to employee development, and develop potential managers (Burke and McKeen, 1989).

In terms of the protégé, mentoring is widely seen to provide performance feedback to the protégé, the ability to share and exchange information, improved motivation, an introduction to networks and also career guidance counseling which is both confidential and emotionally supportive (Leibowitz et al., 1986; Gibb and Megginson, 1993).

Additionally, improvements in productivity through performance planning and improved teamwork have also been cited (Murray, 1991; Reich, 1986) as well as an awareness and interpretation of organisational rules, access to information regarding firm politics and courses of appropriate action which protégés could take in varying organisational situations (Scandura and Viator, 1991). Additionally, the potential exists for improved organisational communication (Murray, 1991) and greater opportunities for the protégé to demonstrate all their abilities to senior management (Reich, 1985).

The protégé may also become socialised to the values and norms of the organisation, as mentoring may provide the “continuity of corporate culture” which is required in today’s cross-cultural organisations (Zey, 1988: 50).

Other benefits of mentoring include the possibility of open communication between the mentor and protégé which may encourage the protégé to remain with the organisation and so improve the retention rate of employees (Zey, 1988; Murray, 1991). In this context then, mentoring has been proposed as a method for organisations to show their concern for employees.

There are also apparent benefits for the mentor. The protégé is seen to offer the mentor information, within the reciprocal information exchange, which is essential to developing the mentor’s understanding of the lower levels of the organisation, thereby helping the mentor’s development and fulfillment of their managerial role.

Rewards for managers are largely intrinsic and concerned with the welfare of the organisation (Reich, 1985). Mentoring may be seen as an opportunity to reward high quality people in the organisation and also to give them the chance to develop (Murray, 1991). Respondents in the Reich study were credited with remarking that, “..it (the practice of mentoring) is one of the most rewarding parts of my job” (Reich, 1985). Indeed many authors have felt that mentoring should be part of every manager’s role, inherent in their duties of staff development (Murray, 1991; Karpin, 1995). This presents a cost effective measure where managers are able to offer mentoring in addition to their normal duties.

Murray’s comments cut at the very essence of this study, as the focus of this study is to examine mentoring, not only from the point of view of what the mentor can provide for the protégé, but also to consider what the supervisor can provide in terms of mentoring benefits, expressed as functions. Attention to the functions provided by mentors (and supervisors) has developed largely through an awareness of the apparent benefits of mentoring.

This thesis builds on previous research which has developed an understanding of the functions which mentors provide to protégés. In such studies, mentoring functions have been identified, categorised and measured leading to conclusions about the type of assistance provided by the mentor to their protégé.

While other researchers have limited such examination of these functions to provision by the mentor, this study investigates the provision of mentoring functions by both the respondent’s mentor and supervisor.

1.2 Research Problem

Building on research identifying mentoring functions, this thesis will examine the following research problem:

To what extent are organisational members assisted by both mentors and supervisors in the career-related and psychosocial development areas?

The research problem is investigated in this study through both qualitative and quantitative methods aimed at identifying, describing and categorising the mentoring assistance provided to organisational members who have both a long term mentor and a direct supervisor.

More specifically, the focus of this study is expressed by both research questions (investigated by qualitative methods) and hypotheses (investigated by both qualitative and quantitative methods). Thus the following will be examined:

Research question one asks:

How extensive is the appointment of supervisory figures in contrast to non-supervisory figures to mentoring roles within Public Sector organisations?

Hypothesis one states that;

Career-oriented mentoring functions are provided by immediate supervisors to a greater extent than they are provided by mentors, as perceived by the subordinate.

Hypothesis Two states that;

Psychosocial mentoring functions are provided by mentors to a greater extent than they are provided by immediate supervisors, as perceived by the subordinate.

Hypothesis Three states that:

A lower age difference, higher frequency of interaction and closer demographic proximity between respondent and either their supervisor or mentor will lead to greater provision of mentoring functions from either source.

Research Question Two asks:

What factors or barriers influence subordinates to approach supervisors or mentors for the provision of mentoring functions?

This study aims to investigate the provision of mentoring functions by supervisors and traditional non-supervisory mentors, thus contributing to an understanding of the mentoring outcomes which result from formal mentoring arrangements adopted within Public Sector organisations.

1.3 Justification for the research

As organisations have established mentoring programs several questions have arisen. These have been addressed to some extent through the research although questions still remain.

Organisations strive to compete with limited resources and budgets. As a result many have established mentoring programs in order to develop employees through human resources already at their disposal. In addition, management programs for supervisors have been developed by many organisations, partly because this represents efficient utilisation of manager's skills and abilities but also because staff development concerns are increasingly recognised as the responsibility of those managers (Zey, 1988; Karpin, 1995). Indeed in some cases both the size of the organisation and demographic characteristics will stipulate that the immediate supervisor is the only available mentor.

While the use of supervisors to perform mentoring functions may appear convenient it begs the question, are supervisory and non-supervisory figures able to perform mentoring functions to the same extent?

Recent research has focused on the question of matching mentors and protégés and the quality of mentoring relationships in terms of what they can provide to the protégé. However the question of supervisors performing mentoring functions is undecided in the research at this point even though the question has been raised about whether the supervisor-subordinate relationship has different characteristics

and outcomes for mentoring when compared with the non-supervisor subordinate relationship (Mullen, 1994; Burke, McKeen and McKenna, 1994).

Thus, the limited examination of the contribution of supervisors to mentoring roles is the impetus for this study.

1.4 Methodology

While the focus of this study is on the functions which mentors and supervisors are seen to provide, these are examined from the perspective of the subordinate in their dual role of subordinate and protégé. It is the perceptions of the subordinate/protégé (subsequently referred to as the respondent) that provide information about the relative and absolute contributions of both the supervisor and mentor.

Both quantitative and qualitative methods have been employed in this study to examine the mentoring functions which Public Sector employees in formal mentoring programs have received from both their supervisors and mentors. The questionnaire was administered to all respondents while interviews were conducted with a selection of the total respondent group. T-tests were calculated from the quantitative data in order to determine whether differences in the provision of career-related and psychosocial mentoring functions by supervisors and mentors were significant. In relation to these findings, the interview data has been used to provide further information in support of the questionnaire data.

Additionally, the results have been examined in relation to characteristics of the respondents and their relationships between their mentors and supervisors. To achieve this, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to show relationships between the provision of functions and the three characteristics identified in relationships: the age difference (between the respondent and both

their mentor and their supervisor), interactions levels and demographic proximity. Such information provides greater detail about the ways in which mentoring functions are provided by both supervisors and mentors.

The processes involved in this research study are detailed fully in chapter three.

1.5 Thesis outline

This thesis details the research conducted into supervisory and non-supervisory mentoring in selected Public Sector organisations in Australia. The thesis is arranged in chapters and sub-sections in order to provide an integrated and easily understood report.

Chapter one provides an introduction to the thesis and explains the nature of the research outlining why it was undertaken and the processes involved. An explanation of the key definitions which provide a foundation for understanding the research is also offered.

Chapter two outlines previous research in the area which enhances an understanding of mentoring as it is relevant to this study. In this chapter, past studies are discussed in relation to the research problem, the hypotheses and the processes employed. Operational definitions and assumptions which are integral to the study are also detailed.

The sample for this study is outlined fully in chapter three. Additionally the methodologies used to conduct the research, although outlined in section 1.4, are explained fully here. These processes are justified, drawing on the experience of other research studies which have examined mentoring in a similar vein.

Chapter four provides a detailed description of the eight organisations studied, providing a background against which the results may be better understood.

Chapter five outlines the research results, highlighting both quantitative and qualitative findings and identifying areas of significance in relation to the research questions and the hypotheses. The data is then discussed in full detail in relation to the research problem, the research questions and the hypotheses.

There are many implications of the results of this research study - implications for those involved in mentoring and for all business people. Chapter six identifies and raises issues which the researcher feels are worthy of consideration in the light of this study. Leading on from this, several recommendations are made with regard to the future direction which research might take in the mentoring area.

1.6 Definitions

Most literature on mentoring has identified early Greek mythology as the source of the term mentor, in its original intended form. Indeed Mentor was the wise counselor who was trusted with the responsibility for the care and guidance of Ulysses' son as Ulysses began his journey in the Odyssey, around 1200 BC. To this end, the roles Mentor performed included "father figure, teacher, trusted advisor and protector..." (Klaus, 1981: 490). The understanding of what it is to be a mentor, both in the literature and in practicality, and the roles performed by that figure in today's organisations, differ little from the original view of Mentor in Greek mythology (Roche, 1979).

However, in the business sense the literature has not generally agreed on a precise definition of mentoring (Murray, 1991). In much of the research the conceptualisation of mentoring has been determined largely by the focus of the study. Indeed, the prevalence and nature of mentoring relationships studied have been influenced by the scope of each particular research investigation (Merriam, 1983) and often determined by the criteria upon which the respondents have deemed mentoring to have taken place.

Consistent with formal views of mentoring, Murray (1991: xiv) considers mentoring;

“a deliberate pairing of a more skilled or experienced person with a lesser skilled or experienced one, with the agreed upon goal of having the lesser skilled person grow and develop specific competencies”.

Clearly Murray (1991) sees the mentoring relationship as providing the protégé with the opportunity to set and achieve goals through a conscious association with someone of greater experience. As respondents in this study are engaged in formal mentoring relationships, this research takes an equally formal view and considers a mentor to be:

an experienced figure who, through experience, knowledge and feedback, provides insights to a less experienced individual in the spheres of career, social and personal development.

The term “less experienced individual” refers to the respondent in this study.

1.7 Limitations

Several limitations underpin this study which may influence the generalisability of the results. As the research has been conducted in public sector organisations only, the study may be limited to comment on the mentoring arrangements within such organisations and not to mentoring in private sector organisations. This is because factors which influence and determine the make-up of mentoring in public sector organisations may not be evident within private sector organisations. Following on from this, private sector organisations may be subject to factors unique to their existence, not felt in the public sector.

Additionally, the findings of this study are based on the views of the respondents only, respondents who were protégés in mentoring relationships. Thus these findings are limited by the accuracy of respondent’s recall and also by the

subjective nature of respondent comment, whether it be through questionnaire or interview.

1.8 Summary

This chapter has provided an outline of the thesis and explained the research problem which was investigated. The nature of previous research into mentoring was briefly described in the light of the research questions and hypotheses which form the focus of this study.

The methodologies, both qualitative and quantitative, which were utilised in this study have also been outlined but will be clearly detailed in chapter three. While it was indicated that respondents in this research were employees in Public Sector organisations who had both a mentor and direct supervisor, the details of sampling and other criteria will also be explained in chapter three.

Although a formal definition of mentoring was offered in the introduction this will be more fully explored in section 2.5, as this forms a base upon which the current study is framed. The following chapter explores the issues which have already been investigated with regard to mentoring. In doing so, those issues which provide insight into the question of the provision of mentoring functions to organisational newcomers are closely examined.

Chapter Two Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of chapter two is to outline previous research which has focused on the provision of mentoring functions to protégés. Significant research such as that which examines socialisation theories, the classification of mentoring functions, views of mentoring and the measurement of mentoring outcomes is discussed as a background to the hypotheses and research questions proposed for this study.

Additionally, research which has implications for the potential of supervisors to perform mentoring functions is also examined. Research significant to this area includes Situational Leadership Theory, Leader-member Exchange Theory, Transformational and Transactional Leadership and current management thinking.

At the conclusion of this chapter, the hypotheses and research questions are again stated, highlighting their relevance in the light of the research discussed.

2.2 Socialisation and mentoring

The link between socialisation theory and mentoring is well established. Indeed, research into mentoring has stemmed from that into socialisation: socialisation in terms of adapting to the “social architecture” of the organisation (Bennis, Van Maanen and Schein, 1979: 129). An architecture built up of “...the way people act, the values and norms that are subtly transmitted to groups and individuals and the construct of binding and bonding within a company.” (Bennis and Nannus, 1985, in Barker, 1991:207). Thus a complementary relationship between mentoring and socialisation has been forged, although the latter is focused over a shorter time frame.

Taking an organisational perspective, socialisation refers to the way experiences are structured for newcomers so that they are able to come to terms with aspects of

the organisation (Van Maanen, 1978; Schein, 1968). This is a vital link to mentoring in that the structure of experiences to aid socialisation is consistent with the provision of mentoring functions such as coaching, the savvy insider and the role model.

Although, while socialisation literature has focused exclusively on organisational newcomers, mentoring literature and research is relevant to well-socialised organisational members as well as newcomers (Whitely and Coetsier, 1993) This is because mentoring at all career stages may have both career and psychosocial benefits. Thus, in terms of employee development, mentoring can be seen to be a more far-reaching concept than socialisation.

The concept of socialisation is highly relevant to this study as the theory attempts to describe what those in the organisation are able to do for newcomers, a concept which overlaps with the notion of assistance integral to the mentoring construct.

Further relevance is seen in the fact that, generally, the respondents in this study are all relatively new to their organisation and so are assumed to be experiencing the socialisation process at the time of the research. Aspects of the socialisation process which influence their relationship with their mentor or supervisor and determine the functions provided would be both evident and relevant in the research data.

Of those in organisations who provide socialisation experiences for the newcomer, the supervisor is significant in the process, to the extent that the supervisor's role is currently seen as changing in order to incorporate this role.

2.3 Supervisor as mentor: the changing role of the manager

Due to the combination of socialisation theory providing an initial foundation for mentoring, the role of the supervisor in facilitating the subordinate's socialisation

to the organisation, and the call for managers to direct their employees learning to some extent, some are of the view that “managers must exchange the old model of manager as authoritarian and corporate parent for one of leader as supporter, enabler, or even partner...” (Bell, 1996 in Standke, 1997: 64).

Impetus for this may be through flattened hierarchies which require employees to learn new and a wider range of skills. Managers must become mentors “if learning is to become a way of life in the workplace.” (Bell, 1996, in Standke, 1997: 64). If we accept that the majority of a manager’s time is spent in one-on-one relations with their employees which can constitute “interpersonal mentoring activities” (Standke, 1997: 64) then it is possible to see the manager as a potential mentoring figure.

However, consistent with the notions of the learning organisation (Senge, 1996), if managers are to become mentors they need to “foster the culture of experimentation instead of procedure, ingenuity instead of compliance, and learning from failure”. (Bell, 1996: 138). This is supported by the notion that the leader/coach role of today’s managers is likely to become far more important with the advent of flatter organisational structures and team based work arrangements (Karpin, 1995).

Some have come to believe that it is part of the manager’s job to develop his or her staff, suggesting that;

“..the value of any mentoring program depends in part on making middle and senior managers aware that it is part of their job to act as mentors.” (Jacoby, 1989: 10)

While this viewpoint does not stipulate supervisor-subordinate mentoring relations per se, it does recognise that all supervisors may be able to engage in mentoring activities for lower level employees, thereby assuming that all supervisors have developed skills in mentoring lower level employees.

Several theories and research findings indicate that the supervisor may provide mentoring assistance to the subordinate - findings which impact on the changing role of the supervisor.

Indeed Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) indicates that successful managers are identified as employing participative styles and are concerned for the development of their subordinates (Blanchard, 1991; Blanchard and Wakin 1991; McClelland and Burnham, 1976, in Hunt and Michael, 1983).

SLT stipulates that, with regard to coaching the subordinate, the leader considers subordinate maturity and employs the appropriate task behaviour accordingly (Blank et al. 1990). Thus if subordinate maturity is low the leader needs to provide high amounts of task behaviour (Blank et al. 1990). Such high directive and high supportive leader behaviour is labeled as coaching. This may equate with coaching in a mentoring sense. Thus the mentoring construct and SLT may overlap because of the supervisor's concern with directing, coaching and supporting, indicating a capability of the supervisor to perform mentoring functions. Situational Leadership Theory is discussed in greater detail in section 2.9.

As further support for the supervisor as mentor, "expansionist thinking" has been applied to the mentoring construct (Kaye and Jacobson, 1996:44). In constructing mentoring in the past, "reductionist thinking" - that of a one-on-one involvement between the mentor and the protégé - has been the norm. Researchers (Kaye and Jacobson, 1996) argue that this may lead to limited employee development and propose to involve groups of employees, mentors and managers in the expansionist version. Such thinking would make the supervisor, the "development-minded manager" (Kaye and Jacobson, 1996: 44) in the role of providing mentoring functions to the subordinate, a notion consistent with Senge's (1996) learning

organisation and the concept of career mentoring offered by Phillips-Jones (1982) and others and discussed later in section 2.7

Researchers consider that the development-minded manager could enhance mentoring by “facilitating development conversations, providing feedback and coaching, linking high performing employees to organisational information and networks, helping them shape goals, helping them process their learning on an on-going basis and encouraging them to explore new ways on the job” (Kaye and Jacobson, 1996: 44). Kaye and Jacobson also believe that these managers “understand their role in terms of day-to-day authority and skill building.” Additionally they “provide personal feedback, cultivate people’s capabilities, craft and debrief challenging assignments, endorse experimentation, and ask questions” (Kaye and Jacobson, 1996: 44).

Indeed this appears to be the situation in one such case (Coley, 1996). In a program, highlighted in research, the protégé works on their own developmental needs while mentors and managers are encouraged to meet and discuss the protégé’s interests, skills and developmental needs in order to design a mentoring program which is appropriate. The feedback on the protégé’s development is conducted by a 360 degree assessment method, from mentors, managers, peers and subordinates. This is indicative of the expansionist ideas espoused by other researchers (Kaye and Jacobson, 1996) and descriptive of the potential role of both supervisors and non-supervisory mentors in providing mentoring functions.

In contexts like these, the mentor is often referred to as a coach. However the term coach does not describe the full mentoring role.

2.4 Differentiation between mentoring and coaching

While some may see the supervisor as a potential coach or labeled mentors “corporate coaches”, this does not reflect mentoring in its true sense.

Hadden (1997) differentiates between coaching and mentoring with the analogy of the umbrella. The total umbrella representing mentoring with each of the individual panels identifying each of the mentoring roles, roles such as “advisor, sponsor, tutor, advocate, coach, protector, role model and guide” (Hadden, 1997:17). The coach role is represented by one panel of the total umbrella. The distinction is further clarified when we consider that “a mentor is a coach, but not all coaches are mentors” (Hadden, 1997: 17).

Additionally mentoring is considered to be a long-term relationship which “employs many roles to bring the protégé along in his or her personal or career development. Coaching is more performance oriented” (Hadden, 1997:17). Clearly, care is required in defining the exact nature of a mentor.

2.5 Defining a mentor

The definition of a mentor has generally taken one of three views, either a relationship focus, a person oriented focus (identifying the type of person that the mentor is to the protégé) or a behavioural focus, that is, what the mentor is seen to do for the protégé.

Indicative of the attempt to define mentoring by focusing on the relationship between the mentor and the protégé, mentoring has been viewed as “...a relationship which serves to educate less experienced employees and promote the adoption of organisational values and professional behavior” (Scandura and Viator, 1991: 20), and “a relationship between a junior and senior colleague that is viewed by the junior as positively contributing to his or her development.” (Kram, 1983b: 52).

Central to the person orientation in defining mentoring are observations which see the mentor as a career model, or someone with emotional commitment to the protégé. (Cunningham and Eberle, 1993; Whiteley and Coetsier, 1993, Merriam,

1983). In defining a mentor, the type of person is often seen as a "...successful, knowledgeable senior who is willing to share expertise and "is not threatened by the protégé's potential for equaling or surpassing them." (London, 1985: 219) or indeed one who is "...chosen freely, by chance and not part and parcel of the formal management system of the organization" (Brookes, 1994: 11).

In early research a mentor was defined as "...a seasoned senior executive who can offer the wisdom of years of experience from which to counsel and guide younger individuals as they move ahead in their careers..." (Klaus, 1981, in Olian, et al., 1988:16). This represents a marrying of both person and behaviour orientations in the way mentors are perceived.

Thus, behavioural definitions of mentoring focus on the actual activities which mentors engage in with the protégé, the type of assistance they provide, not necessarily the person that they are. Typifying this, a mentor could be "someone who actively advises, guides and promotes another's career and training, thereby influencing career progress and well-being" (Cunningham and Eberle, 1993: 54) and one "who helps someone else learn something the learner would otherwise have learned less well, more slowly, or not at all" (Bell, 1996, in Standke, 1997: 64). This view may be presented using the term role, that is, the role of mentor explains what they do in the relationship. For example, the role of the mentor is to "demonstrate, explain and model" (Kaye and Jacobson, 1996: 44) or in equally general terms, provide assistance in areas such as "intentional learning, building on failure and success, storytelling, mature development and building a joint venture" (Kaye and Jacobson, 1996: 44).

Indicative of behavioural attempts to define a mentor were researcher's descriptions of the functions which are provided for the protégé. Such functions have included guide, coach, counselor, guru, confidante, teacher, advisor and role

model, among many others (Cunningham and Eberle, 1993; Kaye and Jacobson, 1995; Kram, 1985b and Noe, 1988).

The focus of this study is the functions which mentors are perceived to provide to their protégés. Thus the view of mentoring which is integral to this study is the behavioural view, seeing mentoring as a relationship in which the mentor provides a diverse range of assistance to the protégé. Section 2.6 provides an explanation of mentoring functions, ensuring that the functions which form the basis of this study may be clearly understood.

2.6 Functions provided by mentors

A great deal of research has been conducted investigating the functions which mentors provide for their protégés. As mentioned previously, diversity is evident in the terms used to describe what the mentor does for the protégé; benefits, functions and roles as the most common terms. This study uses the term functions to refer to that which mentors provide for their protégé.

Early research into mentoring functions (Levinson, 1978; Klaus, 1981) borrowed from socialisation theory by focusing on the function of the mentor as a transitional figure, seeing this as their primary role. Integral to this view was the mentor as sponsor, (facilitating entry and advancement within the organization); host or guide (familiarising the protégé with organisational values and customs) and also counselor (providing support at stressful times). Levinson (1978) saw the mentor as an exemplar figure - a source of admiration for the protégé - thereby suggesting an element of role modeling.

This view was later refined into five functions (Klaus, 1981). Mentors were seen to provide career advice, counseling on development plans, sponsorship and mediation, monitoring and feedback on performance and also role modeling.

Integral to Klaus' research was the differentiation of mentoring functions into two aspects - formal and informal functions. The notion that coaching functions exhibited formality while in contrast sponsorship exhibited informal aspects created a precedent for the way in which functions were viewed.

Research in the last decade or so has attempted to further categorise and describe the types of functions which mentors provide. Indeed Kram (1983a) has postulated from findings obtained in biographical interview data that the functions provided by mentors can be viewed as either psychosocial or career-oriented in nature, describing functions as "...aspects of developmental relationships that enhance an individual's growth and advancement" (Kram, 1983a: 608). They are "essential characteristics that ...differentiate developmental relationships from other work relationships." (Kram, 1985b: 22).

In delineating between both groups of functions, Kram (1985b) identified career functions as those which provide the protégé with projects, expose them to future career opportunities and help them to "learn the ropes and prepare for advancement" (Kram, 1985b: 22). These functions include sharing ideas and providing feedback on the protégé's standard of work. Other roles within the career function included sponsorship, protection, providing challenging assignments, advocating in favor of the protégé and helping them to work within the organisation.

In regard to the function of sponsor, offering public support was seen to be important in the career advancement of the protégé. Supportive of this view was Murray (1991) who saw the sponsor as advocate for the protégé and recommending of them.

Protection is a function whereby the mentor shields the protégé from responsibility which may be deemed to be beyond their experience. The mentor ensures that

responsibility placed on the protégé is “timely” in terms of the protégé’s level of advancement and development. If the protégé were to engage in a task beyond their capabilities, and fail, colleagues within the organisation may devalue their contribution generally. By providing protection, the mentor ensures against this.

Challenging assignments include the provision of special projects through which the mentor could provide evaluation on performance and through which the protégé could develop specific competencies. This function essentially incorporated a teacher role performed in learning situations.

Kram (1985b) believes that the mentor provides the protégé with exposure and visibility, advocating for them in the eyes of other more senior members.

Kram (1985b) saw coaching as a different function, revolving around helping the protégé learn strategies for navigating effectively within and around the organisation. This function essentially equates with the view of the mentor as savvy insider (Kaye and Jacobson, 1995) whereby the mentor shares knowledge with the protégé about how to achieve career and other goals within the political workings of the organisation. This is largely a socialisation function which prepares the protégé for career advancement by making them more aware of the operation of the organisation.

As suggested, career-oriented functions are seen to directly improve protégés work and so their career progress. These functions are only possible because of the mentor’s position, experience or influence within the organisation.

Completing Kram’s total picture of the mentoring contribution, psychosocial functions are those that enhance the protégé’s self-esteem and perception of competence in their position and which help to mold values and behaviours thought to be consistent with the organisation’s culture. These functions also help

the protégé to interact effectively with others. This includes role modeling, counseling and friendship, in addition to recognition, acceptance and confirmation of the protégé's behavior within the organisation.

Psychosocial functions directly affect the well-being and socialisation of the individual. Specifically, within the psychosocial sphere, Kram identified role modeling, through which the mentor influences the protégé's development of those behaviors, attitudes and values considered to be appropriate within the organisation. For this to occur it is necessary for the protégé to respect, admire and trust the mentor. The protégé who saw the mentor as a role model typically held them in high regard (Murray, 1991).

Additionally the mentor is seen to provide acceptance and confirmation. The mentor promotes the protégé's risk taking by encouraging their sense of self and providing support and encouragement.

The mentor's role as counselor is effectively a forum for the protégé to air and discuss concerns with their mentor, either personal or work related. As counselor, the mentor helps the protégé to "see the big picture." (Baum, 1990: 139).

The final and least formal of these functions is that of friend. Friendship is characterised by social interaction typical of a peer relationship, the sharing of highly personal experiences, together underlined by an increasing mutuality within the relationship (Kram, 1983a).

The effectiveness of these functions is seen to be underpinned by the quality of the interpersonal relationship between mentor and protégé (Kram, 1983a; Murray, 1991). Psychosocial functions in any mentoring relationship are only possible through the type of interpersonal bond that is established between the mentor and

the protégé, a bond that “fosters mutual trust and increasing intimacy” (Kram, 1983 in Ayree, Wyatt and Stone, 1996).

Further research has served to support and refine the functions identified by Kram. Indeed Olian, Giannantonio and Carroll (1985, in Noe, 1988) identified two roles performed by mentors. The instrumental role served as Kram’s career role while the intrinsic role largely replaced the psychosocial role.

Like others, Noe (1988) has adopted Kram’s functions in order to differentiate between those functions performed by mentors in formalised programs and those provided informally. That study identified and measured the functions provided by mentors, contrasting those provided by both assigned and non-assigned mentors and built on the view of functions developed in other studies (Burke, 1984; Kram, 1983a; Kram, 1985b; Kram and Isabella, 1985; Roche, 1979).

Noe (1988) found that formal mentoring centered mainly on the setting and evaluation of specific tasks and the learning of specific skills. In contrast to this, informal functions centered on counseling, coaching and role-modeling functions. Within this research, the distinction between formal and informal mentoring essentially follows the distinction between career-oriented and psychosocial mentoring offered by Kram (1985b). That is, formal mentoring is considered to be consistent with career-related functions while informal mentoring is consistent with psychosocial mentoring.

It is important to consider that Noe’s (1988) definition of coaching may have influenced his findings. As mentioned earlier, it is clear that entirely different functions use the same name or title and that similar functions use different titles in various studies, making findings open to the interpretations which underpin each study. As indicated earlier, terms used by organisations for the functions

provided by mentors have been derived largely from the organisation's culture, style and philosophy.

Functions identified by Kram (1985b) have been developed and modified further. Indeed Scandura (1992, in Mullen 1994) identified three functions. Psychosocial functions have been viewed as two separate functions, role modeling (behavior) and social support (Scandura and Viator, 1994). However, the integrity and construct of psychosocial functions was maintained.

Recent research (Geiger-DuMond and Boyle, 1995) has provided further clarification. Mentors are seen to perform roles of the communicator, counselor, coach, advisor, broker, referral agent and advocate.

In a similar vein, Kaye and Jacobson (1995) have identified five functions, generally along the same lines as other contemporary researchers. The five mentor functions were seen by them as; guide, ally, catalyst, savvy insider and advocate.

The guide "shows the way" within the organisation and points out opportunities and "pitfalls" to the protégé. Additionally the guide is seen to "help (protégés) reflect on their skills and behaviors as they develop their careers and their current positions" (Kaye and Jacobson, 1995: 26). The guide is seen to facilitate the protégé's development of their own ideas. Interestingly, the guide was seen to be identifying and pursuing..... (the mentor's) ambitions." (Baum, 1990: 131). Kaye and Jacobson (1995) equate this function with that of the coach outlined by Kram (1985).

The advocate "champions the ideas and interests of the protégé" (Kaye and Jacobson, 1995: 27) to the wider organisation in an effort to gain greater visibility for the protégé. In this function, mentors use their power and influence to promote the strengths of the protégé.

The catalyst is a motivator for the protégé and inspires them to action. They are a “spark to ignite initiative” (Kaye and Jacobson, 1995: 27) allowing the protégé to reach their big vision. In relation to Kram’s (1985b) delineation of functions, guide, advocate and catalyst are all indicative of career-related functions.

Relating to psychosocial functions, the ally is seen to provide a link between the protégé and others in the organisation, such that the mentor “appraises behaviors and demonstrates how others perceive the protégé”. Effectively they are a sounding board, providing candid feedback.

The mentor as savvy insider provides the protégé with vital information which helps them to achieve their goals. This is the type of information which helps them to understand how to get things done. Mentors should be able to offer insight into “the paradox of being a savvy insider” and “which avenues are available” (Kaye and Jacobson, 1996: 44). The mentor as savvy insider comes into prominence when we consider that “organisational life is not necessarily rational, formula-driven or goal-oriented. It is full of variables with competing and conflicting demands. The awareness and admission of the mentor can help them deal with ambiguity.....” (Kaye and Jacobson, 1996: 45).

In a further elaboration of career-oriented functions, recent research (Ayree, Wyatt and Stone, 1996) has attempted to provide an all-encompassing view, identifying “... sponsorship (providing good press for the protégé, discussing the protégé’s accomplishments with other more senior colleagues or nominating the protégé for key positions or assignments with other senior employees), coaching (clarifying goals and ways of achieving those goals), protection (shielding the protégé from negative publicity or negative contacts within the organisation) and exposure (assigning responsibilities that allow (the protégé) to develop relationships with key figures and have the opportunity to display talent)” (Ayree, Wyatt and Stone, 1996: 98).

In similar detail, psychosocial functions were identified as "...counseling (socio-emotional support and building self-esteem and self-confidence), friendship, role modeling (demonstrating valued behaviour and attitudes) and acceptance and confirmation" (Ayree, Wyatt and Stone, 1996: 98).

Functions expressed in this fashion reflect an overview of the whole mentor function, not necessarily differentiating between career-oriented and psychosocial mentoring functions. This is largely how recent mentoring studies have viewed the functions of the mentor.

As explained earlier, the use of various terms to describe functions provided by the mentor has emerged largely as a direct result of the culture, philosophy and style of the organisation, with the organisation's culture determining the appropriate title(s) for each function (Murray, 1991). For example the mentoring title "role model" has been widely applied within the nursing profession to indicate the way more experienced nurses pass on the caring skills and attitudes required of younger nurses.

As there is an almost infinite number of titles given to the functions which mentors are seen to provide to protégés, in any study which utilises mentoring functions as a unit of measure it is necessary to identify and define those functions clearly, based on the work of other researchers. Thus the titles which are used in this study to describe the full range of mentoring functions examined are gleaned from the research of others (Kram, 1983b; Kram, 1985b; Noe, 1988; Noe, 1991; Kaye and Jacobson, 1995 and Kaye and Jacobson, 1996) and intended to provide an all-encompassing picture of what the mentor may provide for the protégé. These functions are described in section 2.10 and illustrated in Figure One.

2.7 Views of mentoring

The work by researchers towards the identification of mentoring functions has resulted in the development of multiple views of the mentoring construct. Indeed in isolating mentoring functions, researchers (Brookes, 1994; Whitely and Coetsier, 1993; Kram, 1985b; Phillips-Jones, 1982; Gibb and Megginson, 1993; Burgess, 1995; Burke and McKeen, 1989; Ayree, Wyatt and Stone, 1996) have attempted to draw distinctions between different types of mentoring, identifying “true mentoring” and otherwise. A true mentor, reflecting the spirit of Mentor in Greek mythology, is seen as one who is “...chosen freely, by chance and not part and parcel of the formal management system of the organisation” (Brookes, 1994: 12).

In an attempt to classify and define mentoring, researchers have coined a wealth of terms to describe the range of mentoring delivered. In the process, researchers have developed the notions of classical and career-oriented mentoring (Whitely and Coetsier, 1993). Indeed recent research findings (Whitely and Coetsier, 1993) have viewed mentoring relationships from two viewpoints. Classical, or primary, mentoring is an intense developmental relationship providing both career and psychosocial support over a long period of time. Kram (1985a) argues that classical mentoring would theoretically provide all functions, that is, both career-oriented and psychosocial functions. The classical mentor is seen as “altruistic, less common but more caring” (Phillips-Jones, 1982: 24), while the relationship has great intimacy, long duration and is both intense and exclusive (Ayree, Wyatt and Stone, 1996).

However, the classical mentor may be rarely seen in business. In studies of mentoring (Merriam, 1983), its prevalence depended largely on how the mentoring relationship was defined. Illustrative of this, in research where the mentor was seen as merely a helper or sponsor to the protégé then the incidence of mentoring appears to be greater.

On the other hand career-oriented, or secondary mentoring, where the protégé draws on multiple mentor relationships for developmental support, is focused more in the short term. In this construct each specific mentor has a specialised, competency based focus (Whitely and Coetsier, 1993). A secondary mentor is more common and takes on a business-type relationship (Phillips-Jones 1982), generally only providing career-oriented functions for the protégé. They provide a “comprehensive set of roles and associated activities including coaching, protection, providing information to interpret or anticipate actions, and sponsorship or support” (Kram, 1985, in Whitely and Coetsier, 1993: 422). Such concepts are indicative of “expansionist thinking” raised by other researchers (Kaye and Jacobson, 1996: 44) and discussed in section 2.3.

It is significant for the purposes of this study that in the Whitely and Coetsier research, career mentoring was seen to be provided by sources such as “immediate bosses, managers in other units and other more senior managers.” (Whitely and Coetsier, 1993: 421).

In a similar vein, two approaches to mentoring, Mainstream and Learning Support Mentoring, have been identified by Gibb and Megginson (1993) which build on and further describe the classical and career mentoring constructs developed by both Kram, 1985a) and Whitely and Coetsier (1993). Mainstream mentoring may be compared to classical mentoring in that it develops the protégé in the traditional methods, covering all mentoring functions, as offered by a single mentor. Learning support mentoring tends to focus, like career-oriented mentoring, on the development of specific goals and may utilise multiple mentors at specific times to achieve this.

Further differentiation in the mentoring construct has come from a contrast between spontaneous and planned, or formal, mentoring. Spontaneous mentoring follows largely the idea of classical mentoring, with the relationship based on “the

right chemistry”, is generally unstructured and informal, is considered to occur widely but in an ad hoc fashion (Burgess, 1995). Conversely, formal mentoring has been defined as a mentoring relationship where “...junior members or employees are directly linked with more senior individuals, usually for a prescribed length of time” and to meet established goals or aims (Burke and McKeen, 1989).

While these terms are to some extent ambiguous, it is important to realise that they have been coined for the purposes of each particular study.

Clearly, it is often the case that mentoring relationships do not provide the full set of functions (Kram, 1983b). It is significant for this study that any one mentor may not, and probably will not, provide all functions. This is also supported by the findings of Noe (1988) that “...in most mentoring relationships only a subset of possible functions are provided by the mentor” (Noe, 1988: 473). This study assumes then that each subordinate will not necessarily provide data related to all of the mentoring functions examined. This is the essence of Assumption One.

Several elements of Kram’s conceptualisation of mentoring functions open the way for the provision of these functions by sources other than the mentor.

While it is not disputed that these functions are provided by mentors, it is the view of some researchers (Kram, 1983a) that they may also be provided by peers, immediate bosses, other managers or more senior executives. In this view, career mentoring is a construct underpinned by the belief that mentoring of the protégé is achieved potentially by several individuals fulfilling a mentoring role. As mentors may be several in number, either mentors, supervisors or peers, the functions provided for the protégé may still represent a comprehensive mentoring function. That is, functions not provided by the mentor may be provided by other members of the protégé’s organisation (Kram, 1983). Mentoring and the delivery of mentoring functions is not always “embodied” in the mentor so several individuals

may provide mentoring functions to the protégé, a key consideration in the examination of functions incorporated in this study.

Based on Kram's (1983a) view, it is possible that the protégé may gain mentoring benefits from both their mentor and their supervisor, such that both parties, when considered in total, provide the full range of mentoring functions. Indeed this assumption, Assumption Two, forms the basis of this study - that mentoring functions may be provided for subordinates by both their mentor and their supervisor.

This assumption is further supported by the notion that both functions are not mutually exclusive; any interaction within the mentoring relationship is characteristic of both functions (Kram, 1985a). This is the essence of Assumption Three.

Additionally, the provision of mentoring functions may be dependent upon specific organisational factors and mentoring arrangements. These include the protégé's developmental needs, the interpersonal skills of both parties and the organisational context. Specifically, the organisational context may include the culture of the organisation, the design of work, the reward systems in place and the performance management system utilised. An awareness of these constraints on mentoring form Assumption Four.

It is assumptions like these that challenge the source of mentoring functions and the role identity of different mentoring figures, thus paving the way for consideration of the supervisor in the provision of mentoring functions.

2.8 Supervisory mentoring

Although the role of the manager and expectations associated with that role may be changing (section 2.3) and the assumptions of Kram and others suggest that

mentoring functions may be performed by figures other than the mentor, the question of supervisors fulfilling mentoring roles remains inconclusive at this point. Researchers have questioned whether the supervisor-subordinate relationship delivers mentoring outcomes when compared with the non-supervisor-subordinate mentoring relationship (Mullen, 1994; Burke, McKeen and McKenna, 1994; Brookes, 1994; Whitely and Coetsier, 1993; Gibb and Megginson, 1993).

The most common definitions of a mentor allow scope for consideration of both supervisory and non-supervisory figures to be mentors. For example the perception of the mentor as a

“...senior, experienced employee who serves as a role model, provides support, direction and feedback to the younger employee regarding career plans and personal development, and increases the visibility of the protégé to decision-makers in the organisation who may influence career opportunities.” (Noe, 1988: 458)

does not exclude the possibility of a supervisory figure performing the role of a mentor.

Hence Research Question One asks:

To what extent is mentoring provided by supervisory figures in contrast to non-supervisory figures in Public Sector organisations?

There are many who believe that the supervisor should not mentor their direct subordinate. In some studies it has been surmised that supervisors may not be appropriate for mentoring relationships (Olian et al., 1988; Mumford, 1992). Olian et al. (1988) consider that the mentoring definition does not generally allow for a supervisor to act as mentor while it has also been argued that the term mentor has been applied wrongly to some extent (Mumford, 1992). However this may be a function of the ambiguity and open-ended nature of mentoring definitions, as discussed in 2.5. This opinion identifies the traditional mentor as having no managerial link to the protégé and that the inclusion of supervisors in a definition of mentors is fundamentally wrong. Mumford (1992) argued that the relationship

between a supervisor and subordinate is markedly different from that of the mentor and their protégé, seeing the mentoring relationship as one which is predominantly learning based and devoid of authority.

The question of authority is dealt with in research on transformational and transactional leadership. In relation to this study, if transactional leadership is based on authority and is accepted to be one of the two elements in the supervisor-subordinate relationship (accompanying transformational leadership) then contrasting this with the mentor-protégé relationship which involves little, if any, authority could lead to the assumption that the mentoring relationship may exhibit a deeper level of communication. If that is the case then greater provision of both psychosocial and career-related mentoring functions may be evident with regard to mentor-respondent relationships. The distinction here between supervisors and mentors is that the mentor does not exercise formal authority and so is able to provide psychosocial functions.

A recent study (Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1993) compared the information sources of organisational newcomers, finding that for newcomers with mentors their major source for finding out about organisational rules and norms was not their supervisor. However, a significant amount of information was obtained by these individuals from coworkers and through their own observations.

As a result of this research it was recommended that future studies examine the degree to which subordinate newcomers utilise supervisors in gaining organisational information and the extent to which other colleagues provided it (Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1993).

Other findings (Wilson and Elman, 1990: 89) have argued that mentoring by the immediate supervisor may have the effect of suppressing information that is relevant to the protégé's career and personal development, to the extent that the

relationship may not reach a “deep sensing” nature that is deemed essential for mentoring success.

Hence, the concept of the manager-once-removed has been developed (Brookes, 1994) to describe a mentor who is not the protégé’s immediate supervisor, suggesting that the manager-once-removed is in a better situation to observe the subordinate’s career and so offer career advice. Additionally, it is assumed that a mentor in this relationship has a degree of distance which is ideal for providing both career-oriented and psychosocial functions.

It is argued that the manager-once-removed has a longer time-horizon than the supervisor and that this allows them to look in on the protégé from a distance, enabling them to give more comprehensive information on the protégé’s development (Brookes, 1994).

However, the research outlined above has argued against supervisors performing mentoring functions, current management thinking, and the theories of Situational Leadership, Leader-member Exchange and Transformational and Transactional Leadership indicate that supervisors may already be performing such functions.

Some are of the view that it is part of the manager’s job to develop his or her staff, commenting that;

“..the value of any mentoring program depends in part on making middle and senior managers aware that it is part of their job to act as mentors.” (Jacoby, 1989: 10)

While this viewpoint does not stipulate supervisor-subordinate relations per se, it does recognise that all supervisors should be able to engage in mentoring activities for lower level employees, thereby assuming that all supervisors should possess, or indeed develop, skills in mentoring lower level employees.

Similarly, early management opinion (Levinson, 1979) expressed the view that all supervisors should be mentors, they should be evaluated on their capacity to mentor and that the teaching of mentoring and role modeling should form a significant element of management education.

In partial reply to this, the emerging view of today's manager suggests that their role has evolved to some extent. Consistent with this view, today's manager must fulfill to some extent the role of mentor. It has been argued that the supervisor's role is an integration of several roles; manager, evaluator and coach (Orth et al. 1987). Included in these roles therefore is the responsibility for each subordinate's development, that is, overseeing the improvement in their performance over the long-term.

The increased call for managers to perform mentoring functions is evident in the will of many organisations to incorporate employee development roles in the duties of managers at all levels (Reich, 1985), although this usually involves a non-authority relationship. Some (Reich, 1985; Karpin, 1995) believe that organisations should reward their managers for the development of subordinates and other employees into future leaders, in much the same way as they reward managers for the successful completion of other projects. Indeed mentoring is offered as a partial remedy for many of the criticisms about management development leveled at Australian managers (Karpin, 1995), such as those raised by Mant (1994) and discussed in section 1.1.

Recently it was recommended (Karpin, 1995) that managers take some responsibility away from the state for management education, suggesting in part that educating future managers should be the role of existing managers and their organisations. This is particularly important in the context of today's knowledge based organisations. "Managers should also be developing the skills of leadership.....which help them to lead, communicate, delegate and motivate.

These are interpersonal skills.....which help managers fulfill their duties of staff development.” (Karpin, 1995).

Karpin supports the notion that the leader/coach role of today’s managers is likely to become far more important with the advent of flatter organisational structures and team based work arrangements. Consistent with this view is the notion that managers will drive succession planning and management development as an integral component of corporate strategy. In this context, mentoring may ensure smooth successional transitions and thus the maintenance of optimum organisational performance (Van Maanen, 1978).

As indicated earlier, one benefit of mentoring is that it may allow the organisation (and individual managers) to develop young talent who may lead the organisation in the future. In an early study which surveyed senior executives, respondents reasoned that management succession is a key responsibility “...which they can not delegate and in which they must personally participate” (Roche, 1979). This implies a personal role for supervisors in succession planning through the mentoring process.

Management success in the future will be influenced by the manager’s ability to engage in lifelong learning, the very essence of true mentoring outlined by Merriam (1983). Karpin (1995) sees learning in the organisational context as a shared responsibility between employees at all levels, employing broad learning processes, a role that mentoring may fill to some extent. Thus mentoring is a vital component of best-practice management development (Karpin, 1995).

Findings by Olian et al. (1988) suggest that protégés will gravitate toward those senior people in the organisation who are seen as being more highly integrated into the decision-making processes of the organisation. From these findings it is possible that the subordinate may prefer their supervisor to act as mentor.

These arguments only indicate that managers should mentor. However, one could argue that successful managers are already fulfilling mentoring roles with their subordinates. Consistent with Situational Leadership Theory (SLT), successful managers are identified as having participative styles and are concerned for the development of their subordinates (Blanchard, 1991; Blanchard and Wakin, 1991; McClelland and Burnham, 1976, in Hunt and Michael, 1983).

Situational Leadership Theory (Hersey and Blanchard, in Blank et al. 1990), had its origins in the behavioural leadership theories of the 1950's and 1960's. Based on contingency theories, the argument is that the leader's actions will vary according to the situational context. Although prior research shows mixed support for SLT, it is widely used and recognised by managers around the world (Blank et al. 1990).

SLT is a maturational model with subordinate maturity as the predominant variable influencing leader behaviour (Irgens, 1995). In this context, subordinate maturity is defined as the "ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behaviour" (Blank et al. 1990). While both psychological and job maturity are recognised, job maturity may be linked to the question of supervisors providing mentoring functions as it is task specific and measured by both past and present job experience and considers the subordinate's confidence, commitment, ability to take responsibility, achievement, motivation, the ability to do something and get something done and self-sufficiency. Subordinate maturity may be categorised as either high, moderate or low (Irgens, 1995).

SLT stipulates that the "leader's task behaviour interacts with subordinate maturity to influence leader effectiveness" (Blank et al. 1990: 583). To this extent, there exists a linear relationship between the task behaviour and the maturity level of the subordinate. If subordinate maturity is low the leader needs to provide high amounts of task behaviour (Blank et al. 1990). Thus, the degree of the leader's

directive behaviour is determined by the follower's ability to complete their own work (Irgens, 1995).

In SLT, high directive and high supportive leader behaviour is labeled as coaching. This may equate with coaching in a mentoring sense. Thus the mentoring construct and SLT may overlap through their concern with supervisory directing, coaching and supporting.

Given that subordinate maturity is task specific, such that the subordinate may be mature on some tasks and immature on others, a different mentoring function will be required by subordinates in different circumstances. Therefore the role of supervisors and mentors in the development of task specific aspects of the subordinate's development is relevant. To this end, the supervisor provides understanding, practice and feedback and also direction and motivation, with the relationship between supervisor and subordinate indicative of the "dynamic interface" of mentoring relationships (Gibb and Megginson, 1993: 53) which exists to reconcile the needs of the individuals within the organisation.

Consistent with the notion of supervisors performing mentoring functions expressed through SLT, is the observation that when leaders "lead as teachers, stewards and designers they fill roles that are more subtle, contextual and of longer term than the traditional model of the power-wielding hierarchical leader suggests" (Senge, 1996: 10). Leaders do this through "articulating guiding ideas" and the coming together of "imagination and inspiration", as evident in the learning organisation (Senge, 1996: 10).

Indeed successful management may come partially from good communication exchange and good mentoring relationships between supervisor and subordinate. This is explained to some extent through Leader-member Exchange theory.

Research into the theory of Leader-member Exchange (LMX) centres largely on the relationship between the supervisor and their subordinate, that is, the supervisor-subordinate dyad (Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975; Graen and Cashman, 1975; Liden and Graen, 1980). It is largely a transactional approach to leadership which, until recently, has not been linked to research into mentoring. In the Vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership (Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975) the authors argued that supervisors were seen to exhibit two styles, leadership and supervision, within the exchange relationship.

Early research into leadership (Jacobs, 1971, in Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975) suggested that supervisors may exhibit both leadership and supervision. Other findings regarding transformational and transactional leadership have confirmed that the two entities are not exclusive; a leader may exhibit both leadership and supervision to varying degrees (Bass, 1985, in Scandura and Schriesheim, 1994)

In regard to mentoring relationships, Dienesch and Liden (1986) have concluded that the psychosocial dimension of support offered to the subordinate may already exist in the LMX construct. Assuming that career-oriented mentoring functions are performed, this indicates that supervisor-subordinate relationships may have elements of both transactional and transformational leadership, with these elements not mutually exclusive, as evidenced by the findings of Dansereau et al. (1975) and supported by Kram (1985b) in findings which formed the basis of Assumption Two. Hence, integral to this assumption is the notion that supervisors provide both transformational (mentoring) and transactional (authoritarian) functions for subordinates.

A recent study (Scandura and Schriesheim, 1994) attempted to identify a link between research on LMX and mentoring. Focusing on the distinction between transactional and transformational leadership, and identifying the LMX construct as largely transactional in nature, supervisory mentoring was conceptualised as

distinctly transformational. This is evidenced by the “mutual commitment by mentor (as supervisor) and protégé to the latter’s long-term development, as a personal, organisational investment in the protégé...” (Scandura and Schriesheim, 1994: 1588).

Specifically, supervisory mentoring and transformational leadership was viewed as a:

“...personal, organisational commitment in the protégé by the mentor, and as the changing of the protégé by the mentor, accomplished by the sharing of values, knowledge, experience and so forth” (Scandura and Schriesheim, 1994: 1588).

This research may be an attempt to link both Leader-member Exchange and mentoring in order to identify the value of LMX theory to an understanding of mentoring by supervisory figures. It is partially in response to current management thinking about the roles of managers in organisations and has focused to some extent on management development, the use of competencies and the integration of coaching and learning into the managerial role.

Scandura and Shreisheim (1994) assumed throughout their study that measures of transformational leadership, while evidenced in high degrees, may not be indicative of a long term commitment to the subordinate. They proposed linking mentoring and LMX constructs associated with transformational leadership to gain a greater appreciation of the mentoring functions carried out by transformational leaders.

In some organisations it is possible that the availability of potential mentors will stipulate that the mentor should be the supervisor. For example, the middle-ranked female executive may prefer a female mentor. The only possible option may be her supervisor. Supervisors may offer an alternative to traditional (non-supervisory) mentoring relationships in organisations where it is not possible for such traditional relationships to be established (Kram and Isabella, 1985).

The supervisor's place in providing mentoring functions is also described in the interactions inherent to the relationship with the subordinate. Kram (1983a) has observed that ".....every relationship between a superior and a subordinate is *developmental* (emphasis contained), in that it is constantly teaching the subordinate something about how to be or how not to be a manager" (Kram, 1983a: 23).

Similarly, other authors (Clawson, 1980; Douglas MacGregor, 1960, in Clawson, 1980) have identified a learning component integral to this relationship, postulating that "every interaction between a superior and a subordinate involves learning of some kind for the subordinate" (Douglas McGregor, 1960, in Clawson, 1980: 152)

A recent study (Burke, et al., 1994) has found that the supervisor was one of the most significant factors in mentoring relationships, as seen by the protégé. This study concluded that "mentoring tended to be found in naturally occurring hierarchical relationships and that supervisors tended to become mentors to members of their staff" (Burke et al., 1994: 26).

Further contrasting supervisory and non-supervisory mentoring, the immediate supervisor has been seen as a "...mirror, reflecting back to the individual the immediate corrections that need to be made....." (Burke et al., 1994: 26). This suggests that the immediate manager is inclined to provide career-oriented rather than psychosocial functions. In contrast the traditional mentor has been seen as a "...learning leader (who) is the window into the future of the organisation" (Burke et al., 1994: 26). The term learning leader suggests a wider role, perhaps including both career-oriented and psychosocial functions. The Burke study limited the supervisor's role in applying the future to the present, limited to on-the-job experiences and modeling behaviors.

Research by Scandura and Schreishheim (1994) focused exclusively on Supervisory Career Mentoring (SCM), a developmentally focused construct concerned with the long term (Kram, 1985a; Scandura, 1992; and Scandura and Schreishheim, 1994) and associated with links to the salary level and promotion rates of protégés. This focus emerged from the findings of Kram (1985a) and Scandura (1992) which suggested that Supervisory Career Mentoring has provided greater career outcomes than mentoring support by non-supervisors. The focus on SCM was in the context of traditional leader-member exchange relationships. This is a key finding in the context of this study as it highlights the contribution which supervisors may play in the provision of mentoring functions. This study takes the investigation further by delineating between career-oriented and psychosocial functions.

Additionally, the research of Klaus (1981) found that psychosocial functions were perceived to be of less importance than career-oriented functions. If this is accepted and supervisors, through the work of Kram (1985a) and Scandura (1992) and the implications of SCM, are found to provide greater career-oriented functions then supervisors may be seen to be fulfilling the more important functions of the mentoring process.

Burke, McKeen and McKenna (1994, in Mullen, 1994) have found, when comparing supervisory and non-supervisory mentors, that the former offered mentoring functions to a greater extent than non-supervisory mentors. However, this study examined the relationship from the point of view of the mentor and, while the authors considered the similarity of the mentor and the protégé and mentoring functions, the focus was on outcomes such as job satisfaction, promotability and work benefits. Thus, Burke, McKeen and McKenna (1994) have suggested an examination of the differences in the mentoring relationship where the mentor is either a supervisory or non-supervisory figure.

Significantly Burke, McKeen and McKenna (1994) have called for an investigation into the differences between having a supervisor as a mentor in contrast to having a non-supervisor fill the role. It is felt that findings of this type will highlight effectively the contrasts of daily mentoring and mentoring from a distance as well as examining the functions provided by the different parties. The focus on mentor perceptions in that study contrasts interestingly with the focus on protégé perceptions in this study.

Reflecting Noe's (1991) calls for future studies to assess the functions provided by supervisory mentoring, Ostroff and Kozlowski (1993) also feel that future studies should examine the socialisation of organisational newcomers from the perspective of the roles which supervisors and other parties play in providing mentoring functions, as distinct from the functions fulfilled by traditional mentors.

With this in mind, hypothesis one states:

Career-oriented mentoring functions are provided by immediate supervisors to a greater extent than they are provided by mentors, as perceived by the respondent.

and hypothesis two states:

Psychosocial mentoring functions are provided by mentors to a greater extent than they are provided by immediate supervisors, as perceived by the respondent.

There appears to be no definitive conclusion as to whether supervisors provide mentoring functions to subordinates, or indeed act as a mentor in the true sense. This is partly due to the fact that the mentoring construct is open to interpretation. It is also because mentoring functions, in their generic nature, might well be provided by all the subordinate's colleagues to some extent.

The functions provided by mentors and elaborated in research by Kram (1983b and 1985a) and Noe (1988), among others, appear transformational rather than

transactional in nature. It is through measuring these functions provided by mentors and supervisors that an assessment of the mentoring benefit accruing from each relationship is made.

2.9 Relationship characteristics and mentoring functions

In studies which have examined the provision of mentoring functions and the relationship between mentor and protégé, the implications of interaction levels and demographic proximity have been raised.

Hence, an examination of these elements of the respondent's relationships with both their supervisor and their mentor is important to this study of supervisory and non-supervisory mentoring. The implications of the nature of these dyadic relationships impact on developmental elements in both relationships.

While mentoring research has progressed tangentially from socialisation, social learning theory and related literature, relationships between organisational members and their leaders have received exposure through Leader-member Exchange (LMX) theory, as discussed earlier. In an analysis of the interaction and demographics of mentoring relationships, LMX deserves further recognition.

The importance of the supervisor-subordinate relationship to the development of the subordinate is evident in the findings of Graen and Scandura (1987, in Waldron, 1991) which find evidence that in transformational relationships there is a significant level of investment in personal resources. These findings are significant to this study because they take the supervisor-subordinate relationship away from the limited view of a contractual relationship into one which is more personally binding and of transformational and leadership qualities.

In this context, leadership equates with transformational leader activities while supervision equates with transactional leadership, although these terms have been used interchangeably throughout some of the literature. Through LMX, the distinction has been made between transformational and transactional leaders (Burns, 1978, in Barker, 1991) with the transformational style less common but more desirable for encouraging employee development.

Transactional leaders have been described as utilising a "...cost-benefit.." approach to leadership (Yukl, 1989, in Scandura and Schreisheim, 1994: 1588). In this sense, transactional leaders are seen to use organisational members as resources, meeting their needs in exchange for a contract of services. As leaders they gain from human resources what the organisation requires in return for fulfilling the employee's needs.

The view of transformational leaders is quite different. These leaders act as coaches, teachers and mentors to change the way organisational members behave. They transform and change their followers (Yukl, 1989, in Scandura and Schreisheim, 1994). Transformational leaders and their followers develop essentially the same focus (Burns, 1978). Highlighting this contrast, leadership (transformational leadership) is viewed as influence without the use of authority while supervision (transactional leadership) is viewed as influence involving a degree of authority.

In early research, Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975) argued that the supervisor must engage in other means exclusive of the employment contract to influence the subordinate in transformational ways. That is, influence the subordinate to change. It was argued that an interpersonal relationship which exhibited greater communication and interaction fulfilled this alternate means, an idea later conceptualised as transformational leadership.

Subsequently, this study examines the proposed link between three relationship characteristics (age difference, frequency of interaction and demographic proximity) and the performance of mentoring roles (Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975).

It has been established that both supervisory and mentoring relationships involve interaction due to proximity and that this interaction leads to learning (Douglas MacGregor, 1960, in Clawson, 1980), thus highlighting a transformational element to each relationship. Kram (1985a) has also touched on this stating that a greater level of interaction will lead to a greater potency in the mentoring relationship and so increase the benefits from it.

With regard to the supervisor - subordinate relationship and the existence of mutual and complementary needs, there may be a “..natural dependency” within a relationship which is largely routine (Burgess, 1995: 444). The routine nature of the relationship may lead to a high frequency of interaction, as evidenced in the literature on Leader-member Exchange theory which has implications for the development of transformational leadership. Findings discussed earlier (Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975) identified that a higher frequency of communication was related to the provision of transformational leadership functions.

Similar findings abound in relation to mentors and protégés. Interaction suggested in Graen and Scandura’s (in Waldron 1991) research is paralleled in O’Neill’s theory of mentoring (in Busch, 1985) which had, as a main emphasis, the level of interactions between the mentor and the protégé as a measure of the quality of the relationship. Thus, the interplay of interaction, intimacy and mentoring functions suggests that increased interaction may lead to increased intimacy and so a greater provision of mentoring functions, especially with regard to the functions of Mediator, Counselor and Friend.

Several observations have been made within the research suggesting that an increased intimacy in the mentoring relationship is facilitative of the provision of mentoring functions (Kram, 1983b; Wilmot, 1975). Kram's observation that the delivery of psychosocial and career-oriented functions depends to a large degree on the interpersonal qualities of the relationship is supported by Wilmot (1975: 14) who argues that "the informality of dyads allows the uniqueness of each person to have greater expression" resulting in improved intimacy.

The demographic proximity of the supervisor to the subordinate appears to influence the supervisor's frequency of interaction with the subordinate and, resulting from that, the ratings on the subordinate's performance. The higher the degree of demographic proximity then the higher the rating of the subordinate's performance (Turban and Jones, 1988, in Whitely and Coetsier, 1993: 438).

Therefore the relationship between the three relationship characteristics; age differences, levels of interaction and demographic proximity, evident in respondent's relationships with both their mentors and supervisors and the provision of mentoring functions is investigated in this study.

Hypothesis Three states that:

A lower age difference, higher frequency of interaction and closer demographic proximity between respondent and either their supervisor or mentor will lead to greater provision of mentoring functions from either source.

Integral to an analysis of the relationships between the subordinate and both their supervisor and mentor is an examination of the factors which appear to influence whether subordinates will seek mentoring functions from both these figures. Research question two examines this aspect of the study, identifying factors which determine whether subordinates are willing to approach supervisors and mentors for the provision of mentoring functions.

Indeed Kram suggests, through her model of the “Interpersonal Learning Ladder” (1984: 23), that subordinates learn a great deal more from their superiors if they perceive a high level of safety in approaching them. This is especially important given the role that the quality of the relationship is seen to play in the provision of psychosocial mentoring functions. Indicative of this, the function of Role Model is deemed to be effective in the presence of admiration and trust from the protégé (Murray, 1991).

Despite the feelings of respect and admiration which the subordinate may have for their mentor or supervisor, there may still exist barriers which discourage them from seeking mentoring functions from either party.

Indeed the existence of an apparent conflict of interest and tension arising from the combination of evaluative and support roles (Wilson and Elman, 1990; Kiniki and Vecchio, 1994), described as a “never-never land” (Kaye and Jacobson, 1995: 27), and maintained by the supervisor may inhibit mentoring. Findings such as these highlight fears that supervisory lead mentoring relationships may be too restrictive in terms of communication (Kram, 1983, in Mullen, 1994).

Illustrative of this tension and role conflict, some work has been completed examining, to some extent, why subordinates do not approach supervisors for mentoring functions and why they may approach others in the organisation (Miller and Jablin, 1991, in Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1993). It has been postulated that impediments or costs are involved in approaching supervisors particularly in the early stages of socialisation. Subsequent to this, an integral component of this study is the question of whether barriers to mentoring exist between the respondent and their supervisor or mentor.

Hence research question two asks:

What factors or barriers influence subordinates to approach supervisors or mentors for the provision of mentoring functions?

2.10 Operational definitions

As indicated in section 1.6, formal mentoring has been defined as:

“....a deliberate pairing of a more skilled or experienced person with a lesser skilled or experienced one, with the agreed upon goal of having the lesser skilled person grow and develop specific competencies” (Murray, 1991).

For the purpose of this study a mentor is defined as;

an experienced figure who, through experience, knowledge and feedback, provides insights to a less experienced individual in the spheres of career, social and personal development.

2.10.1 Assumptions

Several assumptions which impact the provision of mentoring functions are adopted in this study. They are as follows:

Assumption One: No one mentor or supervisor is expected to fulfill all mentoring functions.

Assumption Two: Both mentors and supervisors are able to provide mentoring functions, in addition to others.

Assumption Three: Any one interaction may be indicative of both career-related and psychosocial mentoring functions.

Assumption Four: The provision of mentoring functions is dependent on specific organisational factors.

2.10.2 Operational definitions of functions

The categorisation of functions established by Kram (1983a) and supported and refined by other researchers is maintained in this study, such that mentoring functions are recognised as either career-related or psychosocial in nature. Categorisation along these lines facilitates examination of the results in the light of hypotheses one and two.

Career-related Functions

The career-related functions examined in this study are: Evaluator, Coach, Career Counselor, Advocate and Catalyst. These functions are presented in Figure One.

The mentor as Evaluator is one who examines the performance of the protégé and, much like a teacher, identifies areas where the protégé is both strong and weak. The Evaluator then prescribes task development activities which will bring the protégé up to the performance standard required by the organisation. This role may in some cases be integral to the formal performance management processes of the organisation.

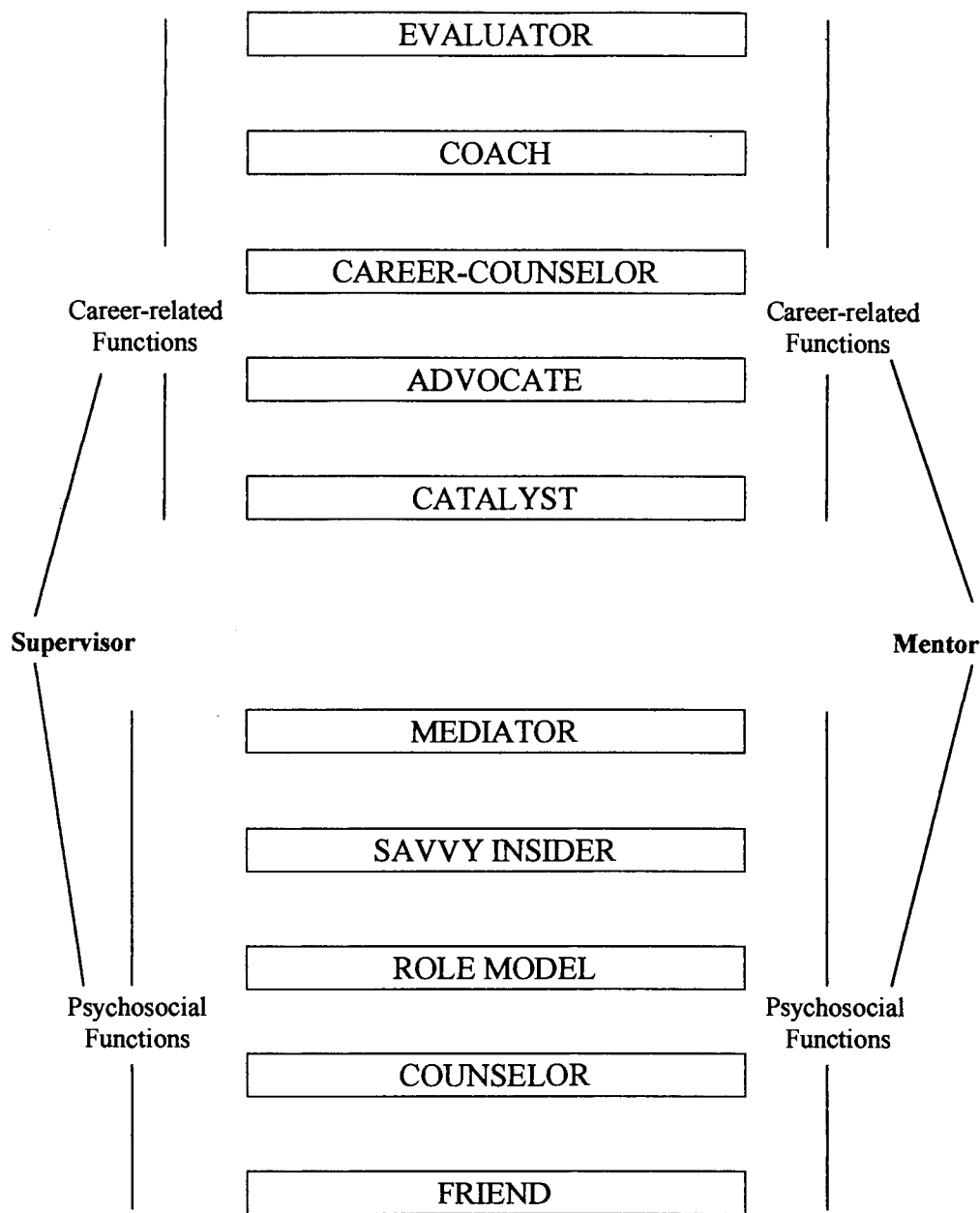
The Evaluator role as defined in this study borrows heavily from the work of Klaus (1981) in the examination of the mentor roles as they were important to the protégé. Klaus identified this as one of the most important functions which the mentor fulfills for the protégé. In the work of Noe (1988), evaluation was the focus in most formal mentoring relationships.

The mentor as Coach incorporates elements of the teacher role. As Coach the mentor instructs the protégé how to perform specific tasks which are integral to their job. The mentor also provides ongoing feedback and support to facilitate the learning.

Figure One

Model of Mentoring Functions

Adapted from Kram (1983a) and Noe (1988)



The Coach role has been identified through the work done by Geiger-DuMond and Boyle (1995) who aligned the Coach with the classical teacher role. Although this function is sometimes viewed as largely informal, in the work of Noe (1988) and Kram (1985b) for example, the implications of a teacher-student relationship do suggest some degree of formality.

As Career-counselor the mentor aids the protégé in the development of his/her career. This may be done in a highly organised way, examining experiences and mapping out future options. This help may be delivered simply by helping the protégé apply for their next job.

The view of the mentor as Career-counselor is evidenced initially in the work of Klaus (1981) and supported in other research. As in Kram's (1985b) delineation of career-oriented and psychosocial functions, the career-counselor function is generally seen as being formal.

An Advocate is one who espouses the benefits of someone or something. The mentor as Advocate will sponsor the protégé within the organisation by helping to lift the protégé's profile and make colleagues aware of the special skills and abilities which the protégé possesses. This is generally achieved incidentally but this incidental, often ad hoc, nature does not detract from the power in helping the protégé's cause.

An understanding of the function of Advocate developed through Kram's (1985b) observation of the mentor's sponsorship role. Indeed in this study, the function of Advocate equates with Kram's sponsorship view. Kram also identified this as the mentor providing exposure and visibility for the protégé in a role akin to offering public support. Such a role is supported by the work of Kaye and Jacobson (1995) who see the Advocate as publicly giving credit to the ideas of the protégé.

The mentor as Catalyst is essentially a role of motivator, indeed the terms could be interchanged. As Catalyst, the mentor encourages the protégé to perform their best and set their sights on moving to senior levels of the organisation. In that light, the Catalyst is a function which works hand in hand with both Coach and Career-counselor functions, as well as other functions.

Research which has identified this function (Kaye and Jacobson, 1995) has highlighted the inspirational effects of the mentor - inspiring the protégé to action. In addition to providing the spark, mentors also facilitate the development of the protégé's vision.

Psychosocial Functions

The Psychosocial functions include: Mediator, Savvy Insider, Role Model, Counselor and Friend. These functions are presented in Figure One.

As Mediator the mentor may help the protégé to deal with any difficulties they may have within the organisation. If the protégé has a conflict with a colleague the mentor may provide confidential support and advice to help the protégé develop a better working relationship. The essence of this function is its confidentiality, with the protégé being able to discuss any conflict with the mentor in complete assurance.

The function of Mediator equates with the role of ally, as developed through the work of Kaye and Jacobson (1995). In providing such a function the mentor helps the protégé to maintain working relationships with colleagues by forging a bridge between both the protégé and their colleagues. Klaus (1981) gave the label host or guide to this function.

The mentor as Savvy Insider is one who helps the protégé learn the ropes of the organisation. Based on their experience working within the culture and traditions

of the organisation, the mentor is able to provide the protégé with advice about how to get things done, or achieve special outcomes. The mentor is a powerful guide to the protégé in developing their understandings of the workings of the organisation.

The function of Savvy Insider is also evidenced in the work of Levinson, (1978) who, in the context of socialisation, saw this function as that of a sponsor, as the mentor aids the protégé's transition. In a similar vein Kaye and Jacobson (1995) use the term Savvy Insider to describe a mentor who gives advice about navigating around the organisation.

The Role Model is a function which the mentor does not so much provide as embody. Protégés often see characteristics in their mentor which they would like to emulate themselves. They may see their mentor in the whole person, as the type of person they would like to be or they may see specific characteristics of their mentor which they view as favourable or advantageous. Specific characteristics may be either skill or personality based and include such things as competent public speaking or the ability to facilitate meetings extremely well.

The mentor as Role Model has been prefaced by the work of Levinson (1978) who viewed the mentor as an exemplary figure who was to be watched and mimicked. Included as a psychosocial function, Kram (1985b) saw the Role Model as one who is viewed as a proponent of the values and behaviours consistent with the culture of the organisation. Murray (1991) contributed, seeing the Role Model as the mentor held in high regard.

The mentor as counselor in the psychosocial sphere is a somewhat different role to that of Career-Counselor. As Counselor the mentor is a confidante with which the protégé may choose to discuss personal issues. While discussion and advice is

also the realm of the mentor as Mediator, the function of counselor is limited to personal, non-work related concerns.

The background for the identification of mentor as Counselor is seen in the work of Baum (1990), although in that case there was no distinction made between work and non-work related counseling roles. Additionally Geiger-DuMond and Boyle (1995) identified the mentor as Counselor in a function aimed at communication and personal assistance.

Finally the mentor may perform the function of Friend. Many working relationships develop into friendships, or may even start that way. Mentoring relationships are no different. The element of friendship in a mentoring relationship may simply be the ease with which the two parties are able to communicate or it may extend to the development of a lifelong friendship. Whatever the level, the friendship of one to the other may be a significant factor contributing to the development of the protégé.

The role of Friend has been substantiated in the work of Kram (1985b) who highlights not merely friendship as integral but also confidential counseling. This may include non-work related issues. Baum (1990) also identified this as a forum created by the mentor in order to air the protégé's concerns. Scandura (1992) paid particular attention to the role of friend, giving it significant status in his analysis of the realm of psychosocial roles.

2.11 **Summary**

Chapter two outlined relevant and previous research which has focused on the provision of mentoring functions to protégés. Significant research was discussed such as that which examines socialisation theories, the classification of mentoring functions, views of mentoring and the measurement of mentoring outcomes,

providing a background to the hypotheses and research questions posed in this study.

Additionally, research which has implications for the potential of supervisors to perform mentoring functions was examined and discussed. Such research included Situational Leadership Theory, Leader-member Exchange Theory and current management thinking.

At the conclusion of the chapter, the hypotheses and research questions were revisited, highlighting their relevance in the light of the research discussed. Additionally, the assumptions which underlie this study and describe factors which impact on a study of the provision of mentoring functions are outlined.

The following chapter, chapter three, outlines in detail the methodologies employed in this study. Specific details are provided regarding the sample, the research instruments, the data collection and analysis and other procedures.

Chapter Three

Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the methodological processes involved in conducting this research. The processes which were used are justified in the light of other studies into mentoring functions while several alternate methods are discussed, together with their advantages and disadvantages.

The sample group for this study is explored and described, highlighting characteristics such as age, age differences, interaction levels and demographic proximity evident in relationships - characteristics which were identified through the questionnaire.

The questionnaire and interview aspects of this study are then explained. Several limitations inherent to the processes and instruments involved in the study are then identified.

Finally the methods of analysis are discussed. As both quantitative and qualitative methods are employed in the research, specific attention is given to each, explaining the treatment of data generated from both sources.

3.2 Justification for the research

In considering the research strategy to be employed in this study, it was necessary to examine the research problem in the light of the constraints on the researcher and also in light of the methods used to examine mentoring functions in previous studies. The message that "an appropriate research strategy emerges from careful consideration of the interaction of the problem, the method and the person-

researcher” (Reinharz, 1979 in Kram 1983a: 610) was heeded with respect to the choice of methods used in this study.

As explained earlier, the focus of the study was on the protégé as subordinate rather than the mentor. There was some justification for this focus in that “being the actors, the supervisors knew the intent of their behaviours - they knew whether they meant to engage in exchange (transactional) relationships or mentoring (transformational) relationships” (Scandura and Schriesheim, 1994: 1598). This study assumes that mentors would also have clear ideas about the intent of their behaviours. Thus, because the focus is on what the respondent has perceived to be their benefit from mentoring, in terms of mentoring functions, it is their view which is relevant to the study. Therefore, the methods employed must allow respondents to comment freely and openly on the behaviours and actions which are evident to them in their relationships with their mentor and supervisor. Only through comment of this nature can an assessment of the full mentoring benefit be made.

Most studies which have examined mentoring functions have utilised a survey approach (Noe, 1988; Burke, 1984; Burke, McKeen and McKenna, 1994). Indeed, precedence exists for mentoring to be examined by the survey method. In these studies, the existence of mentoring assistance has been assessed through the examination of behaviours which are perceived to reflect mentoring functions. This follows the behavioural view of mentoring discussed in section 2.5.

However comments such as “a greater incidence of mentoring shows up in studies where the subjects are interviewed at length, rather than surveyed by questionnaire” (Merriam 1983: 166), indicate that the use of a qualitative interview method may be beneficial if one is assessing the total mentoring benefit provided to subordinates from both supervisors and mentors, as used in some

studies (Kram, 1983a, Kram, 1985). Therefore it seems appropriate to combine the results obtained by the questionnaire with the findings of interviews.

There is significant acceptance of qualitative methods in organisational research (Daft and Bradshaw, 1980; Mintzberg, 1973 in Sanders, 1982). There is also support for both qualitative and quantitative methods to be linked together in the same study (Jick, 1979; Lyles and Mitroff, 1980; Sieber, 1973;) considering that “phenomenological approaches may be designed to complement quantitative research designs” (Van Maanen, 1975 in Sanders, 1982: 359), such that both types of data are collected and combined to present a greater picture of the phenomena being studied. Thus, interviews have been considered and deemed to be appropriate in order to elicit respondent views which provide further background to the information gleaned through the questionnaire.

Additionally, case study methods were considered appropriate to provide the background information on each of the organisations and on the interview respondents. It was considered that case study interviews, together with the questionnaire and respondent interviews, may complete the “chain of evidence” (Yin, 1994) sought after in this type of research. The information gleaned from these interviews, in addition to the supporting documentation, provided the evidence needed for the researcher to understand and interpret the details obtained from the respondents.

Thus, the design of this study is consistent with three principles of data collection (Yin, 1994). That is, the methods reflect an approach which utilised multiple sources of evidence, the presentation of different data types in a logical and sensible form and also the maintenance of a chain of evidence, as discussed earlier.

While other studies of mentoring have utilised action research methodology (Olian et al. 1988), this approach was deemed to be unsuitable for this study. As these methods involve immersion of the researcher for long periods of time into the organisations being studied, it was felt that time constraints would prevent integration into the eight researched organisations for the time period necessary to gain valid results.

Additionally, studies which have utilised action research methods have been interested in the process of mentoring between the mentor and the protégé (Olian et al. 1988) - that is, how mentoring assistance has been provided to the protégé. These methods have also provided some comparison of the mentor's and the protégé's perceptions of what they believe themselves to have provided. However, this study is concerned with the extent to which mentoring functions have been provided, rather than merely the processes.

3.3 Research design and sample

3.3.1 Research design

The independent variable in this study was the type of subordinate relationship, whether with the mentor or with the supervisor. Thus all respondents in the study had a supervisor and a mentor.

The dependent variables in this study were the mentoring functions provided by both supervisors and mentors. Within the theoretical framework of the study the effect of the independent variable on each of the dependent variables was examined. The independent variable, relationship type, was categorical while the dependent variables, mentoring functions, provided interval data.

This study comprised two components, a quantitative and a qualitative component. The quantitative component of the study, the questionnaire, was causal comparative in nature while the qualitative aspect, a semi-structured interview,

was descriptive and provided background data to support the questionnaire. Thus multiple research methods were used, as recommended by other studies (Jick, 1979; Lyles and Mitroff, 1980; Sieber, 1973; Van Maanen, 1975 in Sanders, 1982).

Integral to the causal comparative component were the two relationships maintained by the respondent which existed prior to the study and, as such, provided comparison groups. Thus the purpose of the study was to examine the effect of the independent variable, relationship type, on the dependent variables, the mentoring functions provided.

Additionally, respondents provided data on their age and the age differences between them and both their supervisor and mentor. They also gave details of demographic proximity and levels of interaction in each relationship.

This is consistent with the suggested framework of studying mentoring provided by Hunt and Michael (1983) which suggests that elements such as organisational context should be examined in conjunction with mentor and protégé characteristics. To extend this understanding, elements of the mentoring programs adopted in each of the eight researched organisations have been detailed through case study material, for the purpose of comparison in light of the results. These elements are detailed in chapter four.

Although the focus of this study is the dyadic relationships between both respondent and mentor and also respondent and supervisor, the scope of the study provides for an analysis of the mentoring functions as perceived by the respondent. It is not the aim of this study to compare what mentors and supervisors think they provide with what respondents feel they have gained but rather to analyse the potential for mentoring benefit from both these sources, in the eyes of the respondent. It is somewhat of a customer focus.

There is significant support for this focus. The perceptions of expected benefits from mentoring relationships may influence the functions which are provided to the protégé by the mentor (Noe, 1988) and “..supervisors and subordinates have different perspectives (to the extent that) previous research has shown poor convergence between supervisor and subordinate descriptions of leadership phenomena.....” “Scandura and Schriesheim (1994: 1594).

3.3.2 The Sample

The disproportional stratified sample for this study came from larger sized Public Sector organisations. Contact was made with forty-eight organisations through the Australian Human Resources Institute (AHRI). Organisations were based in several states of Australia: Western Australia, South Australia, Victoria, Tasmania, New South Wales and Queensland. The author used a list of Human Resource contacts in these organisations through the current AHRI Directory, a database of members.

An introductory letter was sent to these organisations. In each case the letter was addressed to the person most likely to be involved in mentoring, for example the Human Resource or Training Manager, a strategy used by other researchers into mentoring (Burke et al., 1994). This letter outlined the purpose of the research and queried whether the organisation had in fact established a formal mentoring program. It also indicated the researcher’s intention to contact that person upon receipt of the letter, in order to find out the answers to these questions.

There was no onus of reply on each individual, as they were contacted by telephone approximately one week after they would have received the letter. This enabled the researcher to verify whether each organisation had a formal mentoring program and then, after discussion, assess whether the program fitted into the criteria for selection used in this study. The criteria were:

- the organisation operated in the Public Sector,

- the formal mentoring program was sponsored and maintained by the organisation,
- within the program respondents had a supervisor and an assigned mentor,
- the program had been in place for six months, and
- respondent's mentors were consistent with the definition of a mentor integral to this study.

Thus the organisations examined in this study were chosen based on these criteria. Of the 48 organisations contacted, it was found that eight were consistent with these criteria and so were selected for the study.

With regard to point two, the definition of formal mentoring used to decide whether an organisation and its respondents should be included in this study was the definition of formal mentoring identified in section 2.10 (Murray, 1991) which focused on the establishment of a direct link with senior employees for a prescribed length of time with goals established and activities suggested or arranged.

With regard to point three of the selection criteria, while other studies (Burke et al., 1994) have outlined on the questionnaire cover sheet how respondents were to identify their mentor, for the purposes of this study, this wasn't necessary because mentors were already identified. What became necessary was the identification of the supervisor, such that respondents needed to identify if their supervisor was in fact their mentor. If this was the case then that respondent's questionnaire was rejected.

Thus respondents were selected consistent with the following selection criteria:

- service with the organisation of at least twelve months,
- at least twelve months in their current mentoring relationship, and
- they had both a mentor and a direct supervisor.

Where organisations and their employees were consistent with the selection criteria, permission was then sought to survey all subordinates by questionnaire and some by interview. Organisations who were willing to participate were promised an executive summary of the findings at the conclusion of the study.

The negotiation of access in this way is supported by other studies (Kram, 1983a; Kram and Isabella 1985; Aryee et al., 1996). Theoretical sampling has been considered more important than statistical sampling in a study with a qualitative component (Kram 1983a). Therefore, rather than conducting a random sample, the HR administration in each organisation were asked to identify the employees who they felt were suitable respondents. This was also necessary because only small numbers of organisational members had mentors.

Sampling of the interview respondents is consistent with other sampling guidelines offered (McCracken, 1988), in that each of the respondents to the interview was a perfect stranger to the researcher, had no specific or expert knowledge of mentoring (other than that gained through being involved in the program) and that the sample reflected a contrast in characteristics such as age, gender, occupation and organisation.

The duration that the subordinate had been with their mentor was established through preliminary discussion with the organisation and provided in the detail of the mentoring program that the organisation had established.

Respondents needed to have been in the mentoring relationship for at least twelve months. This judgment was based on several research points, predominantly the work done on relationship phases in mentoring (Kram, 1983a). These findings suggest that mentoring relationships span four distinct phases: the initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition phases. Generally the initiation phase results in very little mentoring activity while the cultivation phase, after

approximately six months, yields true mentoring outcomes (Kram, 1983a). This suggests that it may be beneficial to study those in the cultivation phase, when, it is suggested, that the bulk of mentoring activity occurs. It was considered that a six-month limit may lead to researching respondents who were still in the initiation phase of their relationship, thus cutting it to fine. Therefore, respondents in this study were required to have been with their mentor for at least twelve months.

Findings on mentoring relationship phases suggest that it may also be beneficial to study respondents who are in same mentoring phase of their relationship (Kram, 1983a). By stipulating the twelve month criteria and given the young nature of the mentoring programs in those organisations studied, as indicated in the case study material, this was entirely possible.

Although other studies examined mentoring over longer periods, this was undertaken for other reasons. While Kram and Isabella (1985) required respondents to have been in the organisation for a period of at least three years, this was because they looked at the influence of peer relationships. This study focused on mentoring relationships which had been initiated on the respondent's commencement with the organisation (in most cases) without consideration of peer influence, so a lesser period of tenure with the organisation was required.

Additionally, the period of one to two years in the mentoring relationship appears to gain optimum mentoring benefit. One particular study (Burke, 1994) found that half (48%) of respondent's mentoring relationships had lasted less than two years. Indeed the mean length of relationships in the Burke study was 30 months. This indicates that while Kram places a greater time period on average mentoring relationships, the length of time that protégés had been with their mentor in my study was in line with what may be seen as the optimal mentoring period in many relationships.

Through liaison with the eight organisations, mentors of each potential respondent were identified implicitly by each organisation: all organisations had formal mentoring programs and the subordinate had an assigned mentor. Thus all respondents had a mentor and a supervisor whom they could identify in this study. The supervisor was defined as the respondent's immediate supervisor, without regard to other superiors with which the respondent may come into contact, consistent with the definition provided in section 2.10.

Questionnaires were sent to 249 employees in eight Public Sector organisations. Of these, 82 were returned representing an overall response rate of 33%. Although there was some variation between organisations, given the length of the questionnaire (100 items) and its detail, this may be regarded as a satisfactory result. Four questionnaires were rejected based on their incomplete status. All 78 questionnaires in the final quantitative sample indicated that the respondent's supervisor was not also their mentor.

The final respondents in this study (n=78) were all lower level officers in eight Public Sector organisations. The organisations covered different Public Sector responsibility areas such as: education, utilities, justice, the environment and others. The positions that respondents held included: Graduate Engineer, Accountant, Project Officer, Principal, Officer, Executive Assistant, Administrative Assistant, HR Coordinator and Senior Officer.

Mentor's positions included: senior officer, engineer, manager, senior manager, general manager, director, deputy chief executive officer and chief executive officer.

The sample included both male and female respondents, in an almost even split. While 53.8% (n=42) of respondents were male, 46.2% (n=36) were female.

Respondents were predominantly young, as has been the case in many studies of mentoring (Burke, 1994). 71.8% (n=56) of respondents indicated their age to be in the 18 to 30 years age group, with 59% (n=46) of the total sample falling between 18 and 25 years old. Table 1 details these characteristics.

Table 1: Ages of Respondents

Response	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1.00 18-25 yrs	46	59.0	59.0
2.00 26-30	10	12.8	71.8
3.00 31-35	4	5.1	76.9
4.00 36-40	3	3.8	80.8
5.00 41-45	8	10.3	91.0
6.00 46-50	4	5.1	96.2
7.00 51-55	3	3.8	100.0
Total	78	100.0	

Respondents were asked to indicate the age difference between themselves and both their mentor and supervisor. The age difference between the respondent and their mentor was slightly greater than that between the respondent and their supervisor. The most common response for respondent-mentor age difference was 6.00, relating to the “greater than 15 years” category. The most common response for respondent-supervisor age difference was also 6.00, relating to the same category. Specifically, 64.1% (n=50) of respondents indicated that the age difference between them and their mentor was “greater than fifteen years” but only 43.6% (n=34) of respondents indicated a respondent-supervisor age difference of “greater than fifteen years”. These findings are detailed in Tables 2 and 3.

The ages of respondents and the age differences evident in the relationships studied appear consistent with those in other studies. For example, an average age of 25 years (24.4 years in Burke et al., 1994) is quite common. While the average age difference between mentors and protégés has been said in theory to be

approximately eight years, recent studies, like this one, have found average age differences to be greater - such as 18.3 years (Burke et al., 1994).

Table 2
Age Difference: Mentor-Respondent

Response	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1.00 one year	2	2.6	2.6
2.00 2-3 yrs	10	12.8	15.6
3.00 4-6 yrs	4	5.1	20.8
4.00 7-10 yrs	6	7.7	28.6
5.00 11-15 yrs	5	6.4	35.1
6.00 >15 yrs	50	64.1	100.0
Total	77	98.7	

Respondents were also asked to indicate the demographic proximity between themselves and both their mentor and supervisor as well as the interaction rates. As may be expected, supervisors worked in greater proximity to respondents than mentors did. Indeed, 87.2% (n=68) indicated that they worked either in “adjoining offices” or “on the same floor” as their supervisor.

Table 3
Age Difference: Supervisor-Respondent

Response	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1.00 one year	4	5.1	5.1
2.00 2-3 yrs	4	5.1	10.3
3.00 4-6 yrs	6	7.7	17.9
4.00 7-10 yrs	14	17.9	35.9
5.00 11-15 yrs	16	20.5	56.4
6.00 >15 yrs	34	43.6	100.0
Total	78	100.0	

Table 4
Demographic Proximity: Mentor - Respondent

Response	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Adjoining office	5	6.4	6.4
Same floor	6	7.7	14.1
Same building	30	38.5	52.6
Same town/suburb	6	7.7	60.3
Same city	17	21.8	82.1
Same state	14	17.9	100.0
Total	78	100.0	

Table 5
Demographic Proximity: Supervisor - Respondent

Response	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Adjoining office	36	46.2	46.2
Same Floor	32	41.0	87.2
Same building	3	3.8	91.0
Same town/suburb	2	2.6	93.6
Same city	2	2.6	96.2
Same state	3	3.8	100.0
Total	78	100.0	

Mentors were located geographically further from respondents generally. Representation in the category “same building” as their mentor was greatest (38.5%, n=30) while only 14.1% of respondents worked on the same floor as their mentor or in adjoining offices. This data is illustrated in Tables 4 and 5.

The interaction levels between respondents and their supervisor and mentor were vastly different. Interaction with supervisors was very frequent. 76.9% of respondents indicated that they met with their supervisor for some purpose “several times daily”. In fact 89.7% of the total sample met with their supervisor at least daily.

Table 6
Interaction Levels: Mentor - Respondent

Response	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Several times daily	4	5.1	5.1
Twice daily	0	0	5.1
Daily	3	3.8	9.0
Every two days	2	2.6	11.5
Twice a week	3	3.8	15.4
Weekly	4	5.1	20.5
Less frequently	62	79.5	100.0
Total	78	100.0	

Table 7
Interaction Levels: Supervisor - Respondent

Response	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Several times daily	60	76.9	76.9
Twice daily	3	3.8	80.8
Daily	7	9.0	89.7
Every two days	1	1.3	91.0
Twice a week	2	2.6	93.6
Weekly	0	0	93.6
Less frequently	5	6.4	100.0
Total	78	100.0	

In contrast, 79.5% of respondents met with their mentors less frequently than weekly. Details are included in Tables 6 and 7.

In summary, the representation of males and females was not significantly different, respondents were generally young and the age differences found between respondents and mentors were similar to the age differences between respondents and supervisors. As indicated, some difference in the sample was found with

respect to the demographic proximity and interaction levels of the parties concerned.

With regard to the interviews, of the seventeen respondents, 64.7% (n=11) were female while 35.3% (n=6) were male.

There was some variation in the age of interview respondents. While the average age was 30.47 years, the range in ages was 24 to 46 years. 52.9% (n=9) of respondents indicated their age to be in the 18 to 25 years age group, while 23.5% (n=4) respondents were aged between 31 and 35 years. Each of the other age categories only contained one respondent.

3.4 Research instruments

3.4.1 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to provide information on the extent to which respondents were provided with mentoring functions by their mentor and supervisor. The questionnaire asked respondents to comment on the extent to which their mentor and supervisor exhibited behaviours which are seen as consistent with the provision of these functions. To facilitate the distribution of questionnaires, contact was re-established with those research organisations included.

In providing their support for the study some organisations requested absolute confidentiality. To ensure this, each organisation indicated the number of respondents who could be surveyed, in which case the appropriate number of questionnaires were sent. Organisations distributed one questionnaire to each of the respondents which was returned by respondents through the return reply-paid envelope directly to the researcher. Additionally, each questionnaire had a return slip on which respondents could indicate whether they were willing to sit an

interview. If they were, personal contact was made by the researcher and an interview time and venue arranged.

The question of confidentiality was addressed differently for other organisations. The majority were happy to provide a list of potential respondents and from that, a list of available interviewees. All respondents on those lists were sent questionnaires personally addressed to them and encouraged to return them in the reply-paid envelope.

Thus, questionnaires were only sent to those people who were actually involved in mentoring as protégés and who fitted the criteria set out in section 3.3. All questionnaires were prefaced with instructions for their completion, thus ensuring against the receipt of invalid questionnaires. They were distributed in December 1996 and February 1997.

The questionnaire included 100 items which covered the ten functions identified in previous research and grouped into two categories, that is career related and psychosocial. While Evaluator, Coach, Career-counselor, Advocate and Catalyst made up the career related functions, Mediator, Savvy Insider, Role Model, Counselor and Friend comprised the psychosocial functions. Each function was measured using several items, such that each was represented by behavioural indicators, behaviours which the mentor or supervisor may have engaged in. Each behavioural statement was represented by two items - one relating to the supervisor and one relating to the mentor.

On the career-related side for example, the function of Evaluator was indicated by four sets of matching behavioural statements, such as, "*My mentor provides written feedback regarding my performance*" and "*My supervisor provides written feedback regarding my performance*". Differentiating between Evaluator and Coach, behavioural statements which indicated a Coach function included "*My*

mentor has demonstrated to me the tasks and abilities necessary for my job” and “My supervisor has demonstrated to me the tasks and abilities necessary for my job”.

In assessing the five functions of the Psychosocial aspect the same approach was used. For instance, assessment of the contribution of supervisor and mentor to the Savvy Insider function involved three sets of matching items such as *“My mentor gives me advice on how to achieve certain goals in my organisation”* and *“My supervisor gives me advice on how to achieve certain goals in my organisation”*.

It was necessary for items to describe behaviours with no indication to the respondent of the function to which they relate. This meant that while the respondent was commenting on the mentor’s behaviours, they would be commenting implicitly on the functions which the mentor had provided to them and were not required to differentiate between functions (Scandura and Schriesheim 1994). This is consistent with Assumption Three, that each action may be indicative of more than one mentoring function.

While the questionnaire was lengthy by most standards, both positively and negatively framed items were used to examine each function. It was hoped by doing this that the reliability of the instrument could be checked and maintained. For example, positively framed items aimed at examining the extent to which the mentor provided the Coach function included, *“My mentor demonstrates to me the skills I need for my job”* (item five) and framed negatively as, *“My mentor does not demonstrate to me the skills I need for my job”* (item 64). Negatively framed items were not matched to all positively framed items. One negatively framed item was included for each of the ten mentoring functions.

This follows the lead taken by Heimann and Pittenger (1996) in using reverse items within their 15 item Likert scale to examine the benefits of formal mentoring with regard to the socialisation of employees in a university setting.

The development of the instrument for this study was achieved by the patient generation of a comprehensive list of functions from previous research and an analysis of the methods used in other studies to measure the extent to which those functions are evident in mentoring relationships.

The use of a behavioural focus in the construction of the questionnaire replicates to some extent the research methods used in previous studies which have had a similar aim. For example a Likert scale of 69 behaviours which were considered to be relevant to mentoring relationships was used by Busch (1985). These items were ordered randomly throughout the questionnaire, as they were in the instrument used in this study. Similarly, subjects responded to the statements in the same way as in this study. For example, the behavioural statement "*My mentor is supportive of me*" was responded to through a six point Likert scale, thus examining behaviours evident in mentoring relationships (Busch 1985).

Providing further background, the instrument developed by Noe (1988) contains similar elements and was used in a study of the influence of protégé characteristics, gender composition and relationship quality on career and psychosocial benefits. This study was in the context of relationships based on assigned mentors.

The Noe (1988) instrument developed a list of "Mentoring Functions Items", based on the functions identified by Kram (1985). Some of the functions included coaching, role modeling, counseling, protection, exposure and visibility, challenging assignments and friendship. Thus the instrument used in this study borrows from the interpretations of the Noe study by asking respondents to

comment on behaviours which are seen as indicative of each specific mentoring function.

However that study (Noe, 1988) examined not only the extent but also the quality of mentoring functions. Items such as "*My mentor has demonstrated good listening skills in our conversations (Counseling)*" focus on quality rather than merely the existence of support in each function area, as was the focus of this study.

Questionnaire items were developed in a similar way to the development of the "Mentor Role Instrument" (MRI) utilised by Ragins and McFarlin (1990: 326). In an examination of the roles performed by mentors in cross-gender and same-gender mentoring relationships for 510 employees of R&D companies in the USA, the MRI isolated eleven mentor roles and used 59 items to measure the extent to which these roles were evident in mentoring relationships. The roles were developed from the work done by Kram (1985). Therefore, as with this study, they focused on career-oriented and psychosocial functions, isolating sponsorship, coaching, protection, challenging assignments, exposure, friendship, role modeling, counseling and acceptance.

As with the instrument used in this study, the items in the MRI were developed so that each one could examine specifically a single function through the use of a Likert scale. Unlike this study, in the MRI only three items were used to examine each of the functions.

The instrument used to assess Supervisory Career Mentoring (SCM) had similar origins (Scandura and Schriesheim, 1994). Involving six items, it was developed from the Clawson instrument (1979, unpublished paper), designed to assess the level of career mentoring provided by supervisors to subordinates as perceived by both the subordinate and the supervisor. This construct was also measured using

items against a five-point scale, indicating the degree to which they had received each of the four career-oriented roles (Aryee et al., 1996). In that study, career-oriented mentoring was fully covered and expressed by four mentor roles.

Before the questionnaire was administered several pilot interviews were conducted with three Public Sector organisations not included in the final study. The purpose of this was to clarify the intended structure of the questionnaire, ensuring that indicators of the ten functions were adequate indicators and that other relevant indicators could be included. After these interviews, several modifications were made to the questionnaire to ensure that it would reflect the behaviours that were actually occurring within mentoring relationships and what were likely to occur. The aim was also to guard against ambiguity by ensuring that behavioural statements would be interpreted as they were intended to be. These modifications were discussed with the respondents of the pilot interviews in order to canvas their reactions.

The questionnaire contained two sections, one focusing on demographic data and the second focusing on mentoring functions. In the first section, respondents gave information relating to their age, the age differences in relationships, the demographic proximity and levels of interaction, as discussed in section 3.3.2.

To complete the second section of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with comments regarding functions performed by both their mentor and their supervisor, through the use of a five-point Likert Scale with a range of one to five. In this scale “1” represented a response of “strongly disagree”, “2” represented “disagree”, “3” represented “not sure”, “4” represented “agree” and “5” represented “strongly agree”.

On examination, it appears that the questionnaires and items used in other studies have utilised a relatively small number of behavioural statements to indicate the

existence of mentoring functions. As the purpose of this study was to gain an overview of the total mentoring function provided by both supervisors and mentors, it was considered that a more comprehensive approach should be taken by examining a wide variety of behaviours which could be attributed to and indicative of each function.

The questionnaire used in this study included a greater number of items than those used in most other studies. The aim was to err on the side of caution in terms of assessing each of the functions completely. Rather than examining one or two behaviours which may have been indicative of each function, several behaviours were assessed because it was felt that a wider variety of indicators would provide a more accurate assessment of the total contribution in each of the functions.

Additionally, each of the functions differ in their proportional contribution to the full mentoring function, as evidenced by Klaus (1981) in his conclusions about the relative importance of mentoring functions. That is, the function of Coach may be a more comprehensive function than that of Savvy Insider, meaning that the Coach function should be examined by a greater number of behavioural indicators than the Savvy Insider function. In this questionnaire, Coach was assessed by five indicators and Savvy Insider assessed by four. Thus the content of the questionnaire in the various functions is not uniform in number. The full questionnaire is included in Appendix Two.

3.4.2 The Interview

The interview was seen as a valuable component of the study based on the evidence provided by other studies into mentoring. Indeed Merriam found that “....a greater incidence of mentoring shows up in studies where subjects were interviewed in depth, rather than surveyed by questionnaire” (Merriam, 1983: 167). It would appear that use of both techniques may result in the most useful findings.

Consistent with other sampling methods used in this study, Human Resource staff of those organisations not requiring confidentiality with respect to respondents were asked to nominate those people, from the total sample, who were able to sit an interview. This was because they were closest to the action, a method recommended by Kram and Isabella (1985). Potential interviewees were then contacted by the researcher to arrange an interview venue and time. All interviews were conducted in December 1996 and January and February 1997.

Each interview took approximately 45 minutes and was conducted in the respondent's place of work, in complete confidentiality from work colleagues. All interviews were taped and no respondents objected to this. Consistent with recommendations (McCracken, 1988), the recordings were transcribed.

The interviews conducted in this study were consistent with Phenomenological studies in several ways. Phenomenological methodology "seeks to make explicit the implicit structure and meaning of human experience" (Sanders, 1982:353). The aim is to "probe the lived experiences of the individuals who are being investigated" (Sanders, 1982:357). Through an examination of individual experiences known as phenomena and the interpretation and development of the meanings attached to those experiences, the phenomenological method examines the "point of contact" between the individual and their experiences or phenomena (Sanders, 1982:354). In the context of this study the implicit experiences of mentoring relationships are made explicit through the interview process.

The interview method has been utilised to study mentoring because it provides "sufficient time and opportunity foran in-depth exploration of the mentor/protégé relationship" (Cunningham and Eberle 1993: 61). Indeed, studies which have examined the nature and quality of the mentoring relationship in order to uncover perceptions and attitudes about the roles and responsibilities of mentors and protégés have used interview procedures (Klaus, 1981; Kram, 1983a).

The interview stage of this study was consistent with phenomenological research methods in many ways, as evidenced by; the natural settings for the interviews, semi-structured interviews, examination of how the subjects interpreted their mentoring relationship and uncovering of experiences and events integral to the relationship as stipulated by the client focus of the study. Also, the interviews attempted to gain a full picture of the environment that each mentoring relationship operated within and utilised respondent validation of the meanings which were attached to experiences (Aryee et al., 1996).

However, there is some inconsistency between this study and the total concept of phenomenology. Phenomenological methods attempt to put aside the preconceived biases and preconceptions that might be associated with the investigation of personal experiences. This is achieved by obtaining respondent's reactions, comments and thoughts in an unstructured way and later examining these in order to let themes emerge and to categorise the data. However, a system reverse to this approach was utilised in this study. Mentoring functions were categorised prior to the interview with respondent's comments categorised in the same terms as the interview was conducted. This approach may predispose the researcher's understanding and interpretation of the experiences related by the respondent. While this element of the phenomenological method is perhaps missing, constant clarification and validation by the interviewer during the interview and its flexibility - in terms of the order of experiences discussed - may have helped to encourage the respondent to maximise the exploration and interpretation of their events and experiences, as is the aim in phenomenological research.

Significantly, a "precise methodology does not exist for phenomenological researchers..." such that "there is no orthodox procedure which can be held up as the authoritative phenomenological method" (Chamberlain, 1974 in Sanders 1982:

353). Thus, the method may vary depending on the organisational problem which is being investigated.

While some qualitative research requires the researcher to remain within the organisation for a long period of time, this was not possible in this study. The focus was not so much on the organisation but on the individuals within it. As Bryman (1989) suggests, the use of the respondent's comments in this study is consistent with other qualitative studies which have attempted to "...forge interpretations in terms of their own natural language" and bring that back to the functions described in the study while giving a "...strong sense of context." (Bryman, 1989: 137).

The aim of the interview was to provide the opportunity for respondents to tell in their own words what their mentoring relationship had meant to them. Through doing this it was determined that the real meaning of the mentoring relationship could be understood by the researcher and so the full extent of the provision of mentoring functions could be better explored and explained. Indeed, "...without long interview periods, it is impossible to let the respondent tell his or her own story and explore key terms in substantial chunks..." (McCracken, 1988).

Consistent with phenomenological studies, the interview attempted to gain an understanding of the history of each mentoring relationship in terms of the experiences and events through tape-recorded, semi-structured and transcribed interviews. By tape recording the interviews, the researcher was able to fully analyse the event in order to clarify the understandings. There was some reinterpretation of data from the exact words of the interview. Both these aspects are consistent with phenomenological methods (Sanders, 1982: 357) and described fully in section 3.7.

Prior to interviews being conducted, questions and prompts were developed based on the functions explored in the questionnaire.

As the interview was designed to examine in detail the ten mentoring functions inherent to this study, each interview attempted to uncover incidents which are indicative of the provision of mentoring functions, that is, to elicit in-depth information from the respondent regarding the mentoring functions provided to them by their supervisor and mentor.

This was achieved by reconstructing events and incidents in the respondent's relationship with both their supervisor and mentor - events and incidents which would shed light on the responses obtained through the questionnaire, as was the aim of similar studies (Cunningham and Eberle, 1993; Kram, 1983a). Integral to this structure was the attempt to uncover subjective understandings of events and incidents which may only be observable to the respondent. The use of critical incidents to explain the delivery of mentoring functions is substantiated in research where the interview was utilised to reconstruct critical events as examples of mentoring functions (Kram, 1983a).

The incidents uncovered in the interview were recognised as being potentially relevant to several mentoring functions, consistent with Assumption Three. Thus defining the functions for the respondent so that they could determine examples of incidents and then clarify these with the researcher put some priority to the perspectives of the respondent, as is the foundation of qualitative research. (Bryman, 1989: 135).

Essentially then, this was a process of respondent recall, description, interviewer interpretation and paraphrasing, followed by respondent clarification and confirmation of each incident. This process ensured that the researcher understood the essence of each critical incident in order to categorise the detail appropriately.

Consistent with phenomenological methods, it was necessary for interviews to be flexible because the data uncovered was the individual's subjective experience of the events and incidents in relationships with their supervisor and mentor. As with interviews in other studies, these interviews were required to be "both sufficiently structured to ensure that certain topics were covered and sufficiently flexible to allow the interviewer and the respondent to focus on what is of special and particular importance." (Kram and Isabella 1985: 121). The interview needed to be semi-structured as it was necessary to elicit all examples of mentoring behaviours and, through discussion, clarify with the respondent the exact nature of the incident or behaviour so that it could be seen to fit into the appropriate function category (Kram 1983a).

Thus, the interview combined elements of a structural interview with that of a conversation, allowing the researcher sufficient flexibility to "capitalise" on remarks made by respondents, while still remaining within the parameters set by the researcher.

There is some support for this flexible approach, as structured interviews "probably risk not gleaning information about what the subject deems to be important about the issues being examined." (Bryman, 1989: 149). In much the same way a formally structured interview in this study may have lead to the respondent not explaining in sufficient detail the incidences and examples which reflect the full range of functions provided by their mentor or supervisor.

During the interview process, the interviewer established rapport, reviewed the respondent's role in the organisation, and established a view of the respondent's relationship with both their mentor and supervisor as a background, thus better understanding the critical incidents discussed during the interview.

More specifically, in the initial stages of the interview the opening questions were general, of an informational nature. This served to put the respondent at ease. These questions were centered largely around the history of the respondent's mentoring relationship and provided the respondent with an opportunity to speak freely at the outset in order to establish some background or context for information to sit against later in the interview.

During the interview the researcher defined the parameters of each function so that the respondent had a clear understanding of each. While this enabled them to identify incidents related to these functions, it also provided a trigger for the recall of such events.

Also discussion of these incidents enabled the interviewer to move tangentially to other aspects of mentoring functions, thus uncovering other detail which the respondent may not have otherwise discussed. Thus, the categorisation of incidents within mentoring functions was the researcher's job rather than that of the respondent. Tangential discussion throughout the interview ensured that respondents weren't asked to categorise incidents, definition was merely used as a trigger for the respondent's recall.

Category questions would allow the interviewer to "...account for all the formal characteristics of the topic under discussion." (McCracken, 1988). This was done at appropriate stages of the interview in the following way. As several examples specific to the supervisor as evaluator were unearthed and discussed to their full extent, the interviewer asked, "Are there any other ways in which your supervisor evaluates your work?" By this method the researcher could be fairly confident that he had uncovered a myriad of methods in which the respondent's supervisor performed that particular function.

Thus, each of the mentoring functions were investigated in this way, with initial broad discussion of the supervisor's role and interaction generally, through the specific examples and incidences of performing this function, to an exhaustion of the supervisor's role within each function. After the interviewee made a comment which was relevant to a specific function and that comment was discussed fully, the researcher defined the function for the interviewee so that the interviewee was in a position to offer any other examples which may have been descriptive of that particular function. It was important at this stage of the interview that the definition provided by the researcher was fully discussed and understood by the interviewee. The bases of these definitions were tested during the case study interviews before the actual study was conducted so that understandings and interpretations could be tested and clarified.

Thus, while the researcher had in his mind what questions were to be asked in the interview it was a function of the respondent's experiences and how they were uncovered as to the eventual order that the interview format would take. Each interview went from eliciting background data about the mentoring relationship through the first mentoring contact to the experiences after that as they were uncovered by the respondent. The order of the events and experiences being uncovered was not predetermined. It was the interviewer's role to clarify, categorise and make sense of those experiences during the data analysis. (Aryee et al., 1996). This interview format and structure followed a "...rough travel itinerary with which to negotiate the interview...." (McCracken, 1988).

Throughout the interview the researcher was listening for key terms which relate to each of the ten functions identified in the questionnaire which form a basis for this study. These key words stemmed from the description of the mentoring functions and were utilised in the items of the questionnaire which relate to each specific function.

Planned prompts were used; such as *"Can you give me a specific example of when your mentor was able to provide advice about a problem which you had at work?"* This prompt related to the function of either mediator (if work related) of counselor (if not work related). Once key terms were used it was through the use of prompts - both planned and unplanned - that further information was uncovered. Through this process respondents were provided with *".....an opportunity to consider and discuss phenomena that do not come readily to mind or speech.."* (McCracken, 1988).

Probes were used to develop an understanding of the events and incidents uncovered during the interview. Indeed the use of such probes to uncover further detail and depth to incidents was integral to the interview process. The researcher could move across the range of questions to be covered, probing for detail in an area that emerged through the course of the interview. For example, an incident which is relevant to the supervisor as mediator may emerge during discussion of the supervisor's coaching role. This helped identify all interaction which occurred between subordinate and their mentor and supervisor which may have had a mentoring focus and, as such, facilitated the investigation of aspects of the relationship which fell outside the immediate recall of the respondent. This was necessary in the light of Assumption Three.

The use of contrast prompts allowed the researcher to drive the clarification of examples and experiences in order to be sure as to which function each of these related. Such prompts encouraged the respondent to distinguish between the examples offered and identify differing characteristics in them which may help clarify the function to which they belong.

The understanding of the context of each mentoring relationship and the provisions of the functions was better understood through an examination of the supporting material offered by many interview respondents. For example, the

detail involved in some “mentoring agreements” completed by both mentor and protégé and accessed by the researcher gave details of how, why and when some of the mentoring functions might be provided by the mentor and supervisor throughout the life of the relationship. Against this context, it was easy to frame the interview in terms which could be clearly interpreted by the respondent and in a context that the researcher could more easily understand.

3.4.3 Case Study Interviews

Case study interviews were conducted with one member of each of the organisations studied. In all cases, this was with an individual who had been instrumental in establishing the formal mentoring program adopted by the organisation.

The purpose of these interviews was to glean background information on each of the programs, providing a context in which the findings gained through both the questionnaire and the interviews may be better understood.

These interviews were semi-structured in nature, although some structure was necessary given that certain information was required. Essentially, the researcher attempted to gain an understanding of each of the mentoring programs in terms of characteristics such as; the aim of the program, how mentors and protégés are selected and matched, the gender balance, the extent of pre-program training and the nature of learning arrangements between mentors and protégés, among other aspects.

While the interviews themselves were the main information source, interviewees in all cases provided supporting documentation. This was used to tabulate and collate the information into useable data, as presented in chapter four.

3.5 Limitations

As with all research methodologies, some limitations may be inherent in this study, in regard to both the interview and the questionnaire.

Considering the interview process, Bryman (1989: 145) asks, "How can we be sure that the qualitative researcher really has interpreted organisational reality through the eyes of the respondent?" Related to this study, those comments beg the question, How can we be sure that the interpretations of the respondent match the interpretations of the interviewer?

"Qualitative researchers usually recognise that they can not provide a definitive account of their subject's perspectives...." (Bryman, 1989: 146). Thus respondent validation, as mentioned, was used throughout the interview process to check the interpretations of the respondent's comments by the researcher.

Indeed the interview process is limited by the respondent's ability to recall events and incidents with accuracy and also by how willing they are to divulge this information (Cunningham and Eberle, 1993).

As with other studies of mentoring (Burke, 1984), we may assume that the mentoring relationships in this study were influenced by complex organisational circumstances such as hierarchies, work units and teams. Organisational factors which may contaminate the research may be evident in the difference in findings from one organisation to another (Olian, et al 1988). Thus, while conducting the interview, the interviewer "...must listen for many things impression management, topic avoidance, deliberate distortion, minor misunderstanding and outright incomprehension." (McCracken, 1988).

Given that the interview was rather an exploratory research method there was scope for the interview to uncover unexpected data, as in previous studies of this

nature (Kram, 1983a; Filstead, 1970), certainly data that may not fit into the eight categories identified prior to conducting the research. This is detailed in the recommendations for further research.

It was possible that concise definition of the functions may have narrowed the respondent's view and so prevent respondents from uncovering certain incidents if they felt that they weren't relevant to the discussion.

3.6 Data Analysis

As the research methodologies used in this study related to each of the specific research questions and hypotheses which were investigated, each of these are discussed separately.

3.6.1 Research questions

Results related to research question one, which investigated the incidence of supervisory mentoring in Public Sector organisations, were tabled during discussions with organisations. These discussions took place in the early stages of the research, as contact with organisations was made and the nature of mentoring arrangements in these organisations was ascertained. Thus, the case study notes taken from these discussions form the raw data with respect to research question one.

Interviews with respondents provided data in the investigation of research question two, which focused on barriers to the provision of mentoring functions. Comments made by respondents which highlighted relevant aspects of their interaction with their mentor or supervisor were tabled and considered in the same way as for the hypotheses in this study.

3.6.2 Hypotheses

As the questionnaire was designed to provide information about the relative contribution of mentors and supervisors to the provision of mentoring functions, items which related to supervisors and those which related to mentors were compared. Items relating to mentoring functions provided by supervisors were treated as one data group, while items relating to mentoring functions provided by mentors was treated as the other data group.

The mean, variance and standard deviation were calculated for each item in each group, such that each and every item related to supervisors was compared with its corresponding item relating to mentors.

Using the construction of the matching items within the questionnaire to provide a comparative comment on the extent to which the supervisor and mentor provide a particular function allowed some comparative judgment on whether a significant difference was observed in the relative contribution of the two parties.

T-Tests for non-independent samples were calculated which allowed comparison of the two groups and their effect on the dependent variables, mentoring functions, thereby determining whether the differences between the means of two matched items represented a significant difference. In this aspect of the research, the questionnaire enabled a comparison of the supervisor and mentor contributions to the provision of each of the functions. This was done through the use of matching items. For example, within the Evaluator function, item 1 asked respondents to comment on the statement "*My mentor provides written feedback regarding my performance*" while item 60 states "*My supervisor provides written feedback regarding my performance*". The statistical comparison which T-tests provided indicated whether a significant difference occurred between any two matching mentor and supervisor items.

In calculating a significant difference the significance level was set at $p \leq 0.05$. In performing statistical calculations the means of the two items were calculated, the standard error and then the t value at the $P \leq 0.05$ level. This gave the researcher the opportunity to infer whether the difference was significant or merely due to a chance difference and thus, either reject or accept the null hypothesis.

While the significance of the difference was calculated for each of the items within functions, differences were also analysed for each function in a total sense. That is, the results of mentor as Evaluator and supervisor as Evaluator were compared with the Evaluator function expressed in its totality.

This was achieved by the summation of all mentor items within each function to create one variable. The same was done with all supervisor items in the same function. The two summed variables were compared, through T-tests, to determine if the difference between them was significant. This analysis by compilation enabled a comparison between supervisory and non-supervisory provision of mentoring functions.

Results of the qualitative interviews were analysed, further contributing to an understanding of Hypotheses One and Two. Generally, the analysis process involved the examination of observations and comments made by interviewees, linking these against the results of the questionnaire and comparing these to the literature cited and the hypotheses formed. Essentially, the examination of comments made by interview respondents unearthed comments which either supported or refuted both the findings of the questionnaire and the hypotheses.

Data collected from the interview process has been analysed several ways. As all interviews were taped, the researcher was able to prepare transcripts of the comments made by respondents. This allowed the interpretations made at the time of the interview to be clarified and organised into useable chunks of information.

The organisation of this data has been prepared using the Matrix, or Tally Sheet, style utilised in other studies using qualitative mentoring data (Cunningham and Eberle 1993; Kram, 1983a) but modified to this study. While other researchers have used this process to tabulate data, the Mentoring Functions Matrix was used in this study to serve as the instrument to analyse the data (incidents) in an organised and logical way and also to present the final compiled data in a clear and concise form.

The Mentoring Functions Matrix was developed in the following way. In the process of analysing the data relating to incident description, the researcher carefully analysed each incident, and collated the behaviours of supervisors or mentors as representative of each incident. These behaviours were expressed as verbs. During this stage it was important to recognise that each of the incidents may have yielded several behaviours, indicative of one or more of the mentoring functions, as expressed in Assumption Three. As each described incident was analysed, the researcher was able to record the behaviours of the supervisor or mentor as they related to each function. While the data at the beginning of this process resembled a collection of isolated incident descriptions, the data at the conclusion resembled behaviours of supervisors and mentors which were seen as indicative of the provision of mentoring functions. Such a process has been described as the “constant comparative method of analysis” (Glasser and Straus, 1967, in Kram, 1983a: 618).

As with other studies into mentoring (Burke et al., 1994), this study investigated the relationships between characteristics of respondents, mentors and supervisors with the delivery of mentoring functions. This was outlined in hypothesis three (section 2.9).

In order to make judgments about the influence of age differences, demographic proximity and interaction levels on the provision of mentoring functions, correlational analyses were conducted.

Spearman - Rho correlation coefficients were calculated with regard to six identified characteristics of respondent's relationships. The six variables were: age difference with mentor, age difference with supervisor, demographic proximity with mentor, demographic proximity with supervisor, interaction level with mentor and interaction level with supervisor. Each of the six relationship characteristics were correlated with the provision of mentoring functions.

For example, when considering the age difference between respondent's and mentors, correlational analysis was conducted between that variable and the grouped variable created for each of the ten functions. Correlation coefficients were calculated for only the grouped variables relating to each function, not for all individual items.

3.7 Summary

This chapter has served to detail the methodologies used in conducting this study. Initially, the research was justified in terms of the survey methods utilised by other studies which have examined mentoring functions. This was done by highlighting the adoption of behavioural views of mentoring in order to measure those actions indicative of mentoring functions.

Additionally, the role of qualitative methods was discussed and presented as one at the heart of investigations into mentoring. While considering both methodologies, this chapter explained how they were integrated in the research design in order to examine the research questions and hypotheses.

Information regarding the sample was also included. This provides terms of reference for the discussion which follows in chapter four.

This chapter outlined the research instruments utilised in this study, their structure, development and the manner in which they were conducted. Both the questionnaire and the semi-structured interview were explained to the extent that they were consistent with the research design and to allow the reader to fully understand their implementation. Inherent in this were details of the research procedures used to conduct the study.

Finally, this chapter explained the techniques and procedures utilised to analyse the data collected through the research instruments. Descriptive statistical techniques were explained as were the T-tests which were used to determine the significance of difference between functions provided by mentors. The correlational assessment of the relationships between relationship characteristics and the provision of mentoring functions was also explained.

Chapter four outlines the case study findings from the eight researched organisations, in order to provide background against which the results of this study are discussed.

Chapter Four Case Studies of Mentoring Organisations

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents information on each of the eight organisations examined in this study. This information was gained through interviews with the organisational members who helped to establish each formal mentoring program. While each of the programs are quite different, certain similarities are evident.

The mentoring program in each organisation is discussed in detail initially, followed by a summary of the main characteristics of all programs at the end of the chapter. This information provides a background against which the results of this study, presented in chapter five, can be better understood.

4.2 Mentoring programs

4.2.1 Organisation A

The mentoring program was established in this organisation with the aim of improving the development of graduate officers in their first period of employment. It was felt that graduates needed a better understanding of the organisation as a whole than previous graduates, given the type of work they would be involved in. Because of the regulatory nature of their work, graduates were required to quickly develop an understanding of the organisation's regulations and conformities in order to make consistent judgments. Therefore, socialisation and fast tracking of these new graduates was a key aim of the mentoring program.

It was also recognised that past graduates could have benefited from the support and development associated with a mentoring program rather than rely merely on on-the-job experience, as they had done.

The large intake of graduate officers at this time appeared to present an opportune moment to introduce a mentoring scheme. It was decided that the program would be complementary to the normal six-month probationary period for these graduate employees. Including both men and women graduate officers, inclusion in the mentoring program was compulsory.

An external management consultant was asked to develop, establish and monitor the program. To this end, the organisation required the consultant to provide a framework, and to also design, facilitate and evaluate the learning and developmental sessions for graduate officers and mentors during the initial induction into the program. Additionally, on-going feedback and evaluation during the initial one year period was required. The consultant also designed a selection method for matching mentors and protégés and conducted training for mentors and protégés.

The graduate employees, as protégés, did not choose their mentor. The identity of their mentor was communicated to them at their initial training course. Protégés were appointed to their mentor after approximately one month as graduate officers.

While the program would initially run for one year, there was scope for protégés and their mentor to continue the relationship after this time. Such a continuance was encouraged by the organisation.

Protégés and mentors were located at several offices of the organisation across the state. Most protégés were linked with a mentor who was located at the same site, although in a different work unit. In order to encourage interaction, the organisation allowed meetings between mentors and protégés to be conducted during work hours. As many of the officers worked shift - work hours, this appeared to be a suitable arrangement.

4.2.2 Organisation B

This organisation frequently took graduate employees after they had spent some time in the organisation as cadet recruits during their study years. It was recognised that as cadets who were socialised to the organisation to some extent, a mentoring program may fast track their development once they had joined the organisation in a full capacity.

While the program for graduates in the first two years provided them with the opportunity to work in many divisions of the organisation and so develop an understanding of organisational-wide issues and concerns, it was felt that a mentoring program may better allow the development of organisational understanding in addition to technical skills and knowledge.

The mentoring program was established by the human resources department. As all protégés had been identified by the graduate intake, the identification of mentors was similarly straight-forward. All managers in divisions were encouraged to become mentors by submitting an expression of interest. From these expressions, potential mentors were identified and a register of managers capable of fulfilling mentor roles was established and maintained.

The organisation took responsibility for matching mentors with vacation employees then protégés remained with that mentor for their time as a graduate employee. While this initial match of mentor and protégé was stipulated by the organisation, protégés were able to select another mentor if either party desired.

Professional development training was conducted with both protégés and mentors. Written material was used to disseminate information regarding the foundations of the mentoring program and to clarify the roles of each party to the relationship.

The HR department also conducted on-going feedback and discussion sessions, called “Graduate Forums”, at which issues regarding any aspects of the program could be discussed either on a whole group or individual basis. In addition, individual interaction on a regular basis was encouraged.

Mentors and protégés were required to develop a training or learning program together which would communicate the needs of the protégé to the mentor. In this, both parties would jointly set job and career goals for the protégé to achieve.

The organisation maintained the mentoring program under several founding assumptions. For example it was believed that those who have a mentor are generally happier with their career progress and that through mentoring graduate employees would eventually become masters of their own professional development. The organisation also believed that the relationship would evolve into different forms for different people and that interaction is better if it is on a regular basis. Interestingly, with regard to this study, the organisation also felt that the roles of supervisor and mentor may overlap to some extent.

4.2.3 Organisation C

The mentoring program at Organisation C was established after realisation of many organisational factors. As the organisation had undergone significant change over recent years, coupled with the high average age of employees, there was concern for the maintenance of organisational skills and knowledge over the long term. Thus the succession of younger staff became an issue for the human resources department.

Due to this change, it was felt that, the injection of new ideas and innovative approaches by all staff should be encouraged and that the organisation should better utilise the talents of all its employees.

Additionally, the representation of women at higher levels of management was cause for concern, recognising that the requirements of the EEO legislation could be better met. It was necessary to develop the leadership skills of women (and men) at all levels of the organisation but particularly target women for development and therefore promotion.

So while the organisation recognised the value of informal mentoring, it felt unable to properly harness it and so maximise its potential. Thus a mentoring program was proposed.

The HR department called for expressions of interest from those employees who wished to be either mentors or protégés. Those wishing to be protégés submitted a curriculum vitae and a letter explaining why they would like to be in the mentor program. Those wishing to be mentors were required to address several selection criteria which outlined specific personality dimensions. This statement accompanied their expression of interest. The HR department used these documents to complete a “mentor profile” for each applicant.

Once mentors and protégés had been selected, HR used the mentor profiles to match each with their protégé. This was achieved by addressing matters such as location, accessibility to mentors, propensity to gender mix and the use of the Myers Briggs Type Indicator at the initial interview phase. The HR department then helped mentors and protégés to set up a social contract, serving as a learning contract or agreement, by providing a framework in which to negotiate the contract. This framework outlined developmental objectives, how the progress would be achieved, meeting arrangements, and also determined how the program would be assessed.

HR also helped mentors and protégés understand their roles; that is, clarify what they can and can't do and what they could and should do. Each mentor was given

an information kit and a profile of their protégé. At the same time protégés were trained to understand the career development process and the mentoring process and given an outline of their responsibilities as protégé. They also met their mentor during these workshops.

The organisation also established regular bimonthly meetings for mentors and protégés to meet on a whole group basis. In addition there was scope for mentors and protégés to meet individually on an ad hoc basis. To facilitate this, time was provided for mentors and protégés to travel in order to meet, given that the organisation is spread across the state in many regional and metropolitan areas.

The organisation reviewed the progress of the mentoring program three months after the appointment of graduates; that is, three months into their mentoring relationships. This evaluation was conducted by qualitative and quantitative means, using questionnaires, surveys, interviews and discussion and involved protégés, mentors and also line managers.

This mentoring program has run for approximately three years and is planned to continue at this stage.

4.2.4 Organisation D

Affirmative action initiatives were the main thrust behind the adoption of a mentoring program in Organisation D. Top management identified a lack of women in leadership positions which they believed had resulted in more women than men leaving the organisation in recent years. This may have also been attributable to a recent massive restructure which involved large scale downsizing at all management levels.

A recently submitted Ministerial review uncovered key areas which were then treated as targets for action of which a response was deemed appropriate. This

included issues for women such as a perceived attitude or credibility gap (narrowly focused management style had lead to limited diversity, doubting the value of appointing women), a confidence gap (women reported doubts about their competence and confidence) and a visibility gap (many women were unknown outside their immediate work area and weren't sure how to promote themselves).

While the organisation was aware of the existence of informal mentoring, it became clear that it was necessary to develop succession planning processes and structures suited particularly to women.

In order to integrate mentoring with the wider human resources function, mentoring was promoted as a key component of management and leadership programs. Additionally, a management competency assessment program was conducted before the mentoring program began. In assessing the needs of the mentoring program, the Human Resource division asked the following questions:

- who are we targeting?
- why?
- what information do we have?
- what information do we need?
- what other elements should support the mentoring program?

The protégé group consisted of high achieving women at lower management levels who were identified as having potential in senior management.

The mentor group consisted of senior female and male managers in the central or regional offices of the organisation. To select mentors, managers were required to complete a written application which was endorsed by their manager, after which they were assessed by a merit selection panel. Short listing of mentor applicants was conducted by a regional committee, with selection based on readiness, achievements, references, and the written applications.

The organisation assumed responsibility for the matching of mentors and protégés and based matches on variables such as the development which was sought by the protégé, mentoree preferences, mentor preference and general manager approval.

Once mentoring relationships were established protégés were given responsibility for initiating and managing contract arrangements with their mentor. In order to facilitate the successful operation of the program, half day induction and development seminars were conducted for protégés and mentors pre-empted with reading and preparation. HR also assisted with the joint establishment of learning agreements. As the program continued, feedback sessions and both mid and end program review and evaluation was also conducted.

Within this basic framework three different mentoring programs were established. Programs differed in their target group, mentor group, size, duration, extent of participant training and in the nature of learning agreements used. Although these elements differed, programs were similar in vision, mentor pool establishment, selection of candidates and in matching processes.

A learning agreement was completed separately by both mentor and protégé which specified both the protégé's desired areas of development and the mentor's role. To attain these goals the protégé was required to complete a project with the mentor, maintain a diary and a portfolio and shadow the mentor. With regard to interaction it was stipulated that mentors and protégés should have a commitment to attend all formal sessions and also to meet at least once per fortnight.

The human resources division in this organisation had established their mentoring program with several underlying assumptions in mind. These included the notion of minimum intervention, maximum flexibility for parties to interact, the development of mutually understood and agreed goals, and the benefits of confidentiality and feedback.

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4.2.5 Organisation E

The mentoring program at Organisation E involved graduate employees at the level of Officer. In previous years graduate intakes of employees were given the opportunity to work in the full range of divisions of the organisation. These past employees had identified career advice and development as something that would have been of enormous use to them during this initial period.

The organisation recognised a need to provide greater opportunities for the socialisation of graduate employees due to the many procedures and regulations which they were required to understand and apply. It was felt that, as the graduate employees move around the divisions in the first couple of years, a mentor would provide continuity to their experience.

The graduate employees surveyed in this study were the first group of employees involved in mentoring in this organisation. They were informed of the program at their initial interview and matched with a mentor by the organisation prior to commencement of their job.

In selecting mentors the organisation maintained a list of potential mentors gathered from their senior management personnel. In relationship to protégés, mentors were generally located in another division. In doing this HR considered that they would be able to provide another perspective from that which the protégé would gain in their own unit. Thus mentors were high up in the organisation, always at least two levels higher, but did not have the responsibility for direct supervision of the protégé.

HR ran induction sessions with mentors and protégés in the initial six week period of the protégé's employment. In regard to interaction, the HR division established the "Mentor Discussion Group", a forum where mentors and protégés initially met to introduce themselves. Some guidelines were produced aimed at defining the

roles of mentors and protégés in the relationship although there was no training provided for either party. Indeed the mentor was introduced to the protégé as “someone to see if you have a problem or a question”.

During the course of the mentoring program the parties have met in two ways, through group forums and also individually. They generally met, or were encouraged by the organisation to meet, approximately every month with the onus of contact on both parties to the relationship. At these meetings the agenda would be set and agreed to by both the mentor and the subordinate.

4.2.6 Organisation F

In this organisation women were not equitably represented in upper managerial levels but were well represented at lower managerial levels. Thus a mentoring program was proposed to provide training to allow women to develop the knowledge and skills they were perceived to lack.

The organisation called for expressions of interest from those who would like to be mentored. Additionally some protégés were involved because they were recommended by a superior.

An external human resources consultant was asked to propose solutions to the problem of low representation of women at upper levels of the organisation. The consultant drafted a mentoring program proposal, believing that the development of these women was the key to increasing their ability to be promoted. Working in conjunction with the organisations steering committee, the program was advertised through the organisation’s circular which called for expressions of interest by the submission of a formal application. It was decided that both mentors and protégés were only to be women and that mentors could be either internal or external to the department.

After protégés and mentors were selected the team, comprised of the committee and the consultant, ran a two day workshop where they set guidelines, explained the purpose of the program, set parameters and matched mentors and protégés. This was established as a pilot program.

At the two-day workshop protégés chose their mentors through a process of introduction and discussion. At this time, mentors gave a short talk about themselves, outlining their areas of interest and their expertise, after which protégés then held discussions with each of the mentors. It was the role of the protégé to select their mentor by inviting that person to be their mentor. It was possible to choose someone within or external to their organisation.

As the program commenced, maintaining interaction was the onus of the protégé. The program was open-ended in that their relationship as mentor and protégé could continue for the duration that they wished. While the organisation encouraged learning agreements, the content of these was not stipulated by the committee.

4.2.7 Organisation G

As with Organisation F, Organisation G was concerned with the progress of women from its lower levels of management into more senior levels. Women were not represented at higher levels of management to the extent that men were.

While the organisation had an EEO affirmative action plan in place, it was felt that this was hindered to some extent by the perception that women lacked organisational wide knowledge - particularly in strategy, contemporary issues and the political processes of the organisation.

Thus, there was a perceived need to focus on women at lower levels of management, to assess and cater to their developmental needs. It was proposed

that a mentoring program had the potential to equip women with skills and expertise and could possibly extend their network, thereby helping with promotion and career development. It was not designed as a sponsorship vehicle for promotional purposes.

The human resources division called for expressions of interest from women who would like to be involved as either mentors or protégés, after which a pool of mentors was established. Integral to the protégé's expression of interest, women were asked to identify their goals and career aspirations, a process which served as the application. An interview and selection process followed.

The matching of mentors and protégés was unlike that in other organisations. The protégés selected were given the names of four mentors from the mentor pool. These mentors were chosen based on expertise in the areas of development required by the protégé. Each protégé interviewed each of the four potential mentors in their own time and selected one of them to be their mentor. If they were unable to choose from the four they interviewed they were given others from the pool who the organisation considered to be suitable.

HR gave the mentors and protégés a framework in which to negotiate their mentoring contract. The onus was on the protégé to make initial contact and to provide an agenda of the topics they would like to discuss with their mentor. Each protégé was responsible for formulating their expectations and communicating these to their mentor in the form of a mentoring contract, with support from the organisation. Protégés and mentors were encouraged to meet at least once per month and at other times on an ad hoc basis.

The program was a state wide Public Sector based mentoring program for women set up by the Public Sector for the initial period of one year. Over the initial year the Public Sector committed support for mentoring, but encouraged mentoring

relationships to continue after that time if parties so desired. Additionally the relationship was allowed to be terminated at any stage if either party wished. Inherent in the program, confidentiality was assumed within each mentoring relationship.

4.2.8 Organisation H

There were many factors within this organisation which lead to the development of a mentoring program. Organisational change in recent years had lead to a situation where the organisation had a disproportional number of staff in the older age groups who were close to retirement. Additionally many experienced staff had taken voluntary early retirement, so a loss of expertise had already been experienced and was expected to impact further on the technical expertise of the organisation.

These losses, coupled with additional budget funding, lead to the appointment of a large number of new staff. The organisation was concerned that these new employees should be inducted into the organisation effectively. Additionally, the recruitment of women to all levels of the organisation needed to be addressed. Given the organisation's leaning towards "one to one" training as the ideal, the conclusion was that employees should have the opportunity to be linked with a mentor.

It was felt that informal mentoring existed to some extent but this was seen as non-measurable. Additionally, informal mentoring may not have been available to those in the greatest need; that is, women and younger, less experienced employees.

Support for the adoption of a mentoring program was provided by the CEO and so managers were given the responsibility for its establishment. Thus mentoring

formed part of the organisation's EEO initiative plan, integral to initiatives catering for women, Torres Strait Islanders and those with disabilities.

The mentoring program was promoted by internal communication through the intra-department newsletter. Expressions of interest forms were provided to all employees who could nominate themselves as a mentor, protégé or both. Given the emphasis on the induction component of the program, mentoring was compulsory for all new staff at levels one, two and three.

Selection criteria were established to choose mentors. From the expressions of interest a statewide reference group was established for mentors. The regional steering committee created pairings such that the background of each was suited to the target group and consideration was made for technical areas of expertise.

Supervisors and managers of those involved in the program were briefed before its commencement. The regional steering committee provided sample learning contracts and guidelines for mentoring relationships. These guidelines were along the lines of organisational guidelines, common guidelines, and those specifically for mentors and protégés.

Thus the mentor and protégé established the "mentor-protégé learning agreement" which was binding for twelve months, although either party could opt out at any time if they wished. This agreement established learning objectives, activities to achieve these objectives and reporting methods. With regard to interaction, it was recommended that meetings between mentor and protégé should occur at least monthly.

Protégés, mentors, and line managers were surveyed prior to and after the mentoring scheme. This evaluation was conducted through pre and post program surveys.

4.3 Summary

The organisations examined in this study have implemented mentoring for a variety of reasons, as indicated in Table 8. Concerns with addressing affirmative action issues is represented significantly, with five of the eight organisations focused on this issue. One organisation which addressed affirmative action issues with the adoption of mentoring also hoped to focus on the development of networks with women employees.

Mentoring programs were also adopted to help improve the development of employees new to the organisation, whether graduate employees or otherwise. The fast-track development of these graduates was a major concern and served as the focus for mentoring initiatives. Coupled with this was concern for the socialisation of both graduate and new employees.

Three organisations recognised the existence of informal mentoring. In these cases the desire to tap into the benefits associated with mentoring, but accessed with difficulty through the informal platform, lead to the formation of formal mentoring.

Table 8
Reasons for Establishing Mentoring Programs

	Organ' A	Organ' B	Organ' C	Organ' D	Organ' E	Organ' F	Organ' G	Organ' H
Socialisation of New Employees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>			<input type="checkbox"/>			
Organisational Change			<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Affirmative Action			<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Succession of Younger Staff			<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>			<input type="checkbox"/>
CEO/Upper Manage't Initiative								<input type="checkbox"/>
Tap into Informal Mentoring			<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				<input type="checkbox"/>
Extend Employee's Networks							<input type="checkbox"/>	
Recommendations of Formal Report				<input type="checkbox"/>				
Fast Track Graduate Employees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>			

In examining these organisations it also appeared that the advent of organisational change brought with it an opportunity to implement something new - in this case mentoring. Two of the organisations used the background of significant organisational change to launch mentoring programs.

The selection of protégés during the establishment of mentoring programs in the eight organisations was conducted in a variety of ways (Table 9). Four organisations called for expressions of interest from those employees who wished to be involved, although perhaps predictably, this occurred in cases where involvement was voluntary. In three of these cases a formal written application formed the expression of interest. Some flexibility was noted however in that three organisations allowed protégés to be nominated by managers from within the organisation.

Table 9
Selection of Protégés in Mentoring Programs

	Organ' A	Organ' B	Organ' C	Organ' D	Organ' E	Organ' F	Organ' G	Organ' H
Expressions of Interest				<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Formal Application				<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Nominated by Colleague(s)				<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Identified by Organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>			<input type="checkbox"/>
Compulsory Inclusion	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>			
Mentored as Cadets		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>					

In the case of four organisations, involvement in the mentoring program was compulsory. These programs involved graduates or new employees as protégés in mentoring, with those protégés identified by the organisation.

Several characteristics of the mentoring programs in these organisations are worth consideration and are included in Table 10. Five of the programs analysed were aimed at graduate employees and three were aimed at existing employees. Descriptive of this, five of the programs were aimed at protégés of both genders while the remaining three addressed affirmative action concerns so were aimed only at women. No mentoring programs were specifically aimed at male employees.

The data concerning matching of mentors and protégés indicates that protégés were in a position to select their own mentor in only two organisations. This may be explained by the large representation of graduate and new employees in mentoring programs, as those employees may not have the wide variety of organisational contacts necessary to make an informed choice of mentor. Thus the organisation made that choice for them.

Aside from this, in only four of the eight organisations was there some semblance of a matching process to link mentors and protégés. In these cases the process generally involved either the organisation matching the relevant parties based on declared interests and areas of expertise or on a direct interview of the mentor by the protégé.

The training of protégés and mentors was afforded some importance, with half the organisations providing knowledge of the protégé role to protégés. Slightly more (five) provided mentor training as well. It is significant for this study that supervisory training acknowledges the role which the supervisor could play in respect of the mentor/protégé relationship.

While all the programs were of a fixed term, only three of the organisations actually stipulated that the program should end at the pre-determined date. All others (five) encouraged the relationship to continue, limiting their involvement to a set period and expressing the view that, if appropriate, the relationship should continue indefinitely.

Table 10
Characteristics of Mentoring Programs

	Organ' A	Organ' B	Organ' C	Organ' D	Organ' E	Organ' F	Organ' G	Organ' H
Protégés: Graduates	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>			<input type="checkbox"/>
Protégés: Existing Employees				<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Protégés: Men and Women	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>			<input type="checkbox"/>
Protégés select Mentors						<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Organ. Select Mentors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>			<input type="checkbox"/>
Exhaustive Matching Process			<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Protégé Training	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Mentor Training	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>			
Fixed Term Program	<input type="checkbox"/>			<input type="checkbox"/>				<input type="checkbox"/>
Open - ended Program		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
organisation sponsored meetings	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>			
Group Forum Sessions		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>			
Mentor from within organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>			<input type="checkbox"/>
Mentor from outside organisation						<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

The use of learning contracts was widespread, with five organisations actually stipulating that these should form an integral component of the relationship between mentor and protégé. In most other programs, many of the participants

had negotiated a contract of some kind, although, while details of these did emerge during interviews, these were not accessed through whole organisational case study data.

In five organisations, the management encouraged the development of mentoring relationships by sponsoring meeting times within normal work hours. This extended to conducting formal mentor/protégé group meetings, often called forums, in three of the organisations.

Evaluation of mentoring programs was conducted by two organisations. This was on an on-going basis. Organisation F formally evaluated their program after it had been operating for twelve months. To do this, the organisation established an evaluation committee which consisted of the consultants who had designed the program, senior human resources staff and several participants who were both mentors and protégés in the program. Both mentors and protégés were surveyed in an attempt to understand how these two groups felt about the program.

Chapter Five Results and Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter details the findings of this study and discusses the research questions and hypotheses in relation to these findings.

While the methodologies used have been explained in chapter three, the results produced through the application of those methodologies are presented in detail. This includes both statistical analysis of the questionnaire and analysis of interviews conducted with respondents.

Discussion is also related to the features of organisational mentoring programs, as outlined in chapter four. Consistent with Assumption Three, outlined in section 2.10, interviewee's responses and questionnaire results are discussed in the context of those organisational mentoring characteristics described for each organisation in chapter four, recognising that these characteristics will have influenced the comments and responses of research respondents. Essentially then, the content of chapter four serves as background for the discussion included in this chapter.

5.2 Supervisory versus Non-supervisory Mentoring

In regard to research question one, this study attempted to examine the extent of formal supervisory mentoring in Public Sector organisations in Australia. This examination was conducted simultaneously with the research procedures used in contacting the organisations for inclusion in the study, as outlined in section 3.3.2.

Forty-eight Public Sector organisations were contacted, as explained in section 3.5. All of these organisations indicated either that they wished to implement a formal mentoring program or that they were currently maintaining such a program. Of these forty-eight, 19 organisations (39.5%) were currently running mentoring programs with some employees.

In all of these organisations non-supervisory mentoring figures were matched with employees for the purpose of acting as their mentor. All 19 organisations indicated that they had not used direct supervisors to act as their subordinate's mentor at any stage of their mentoring programs. However, two organisations indicated that they had intended using direct supervisors as mentors at the outset of the program. The reason given for this was that many of the organisation's worksites involved small numbers of employees at remote locations. Thus, the employee (as protégé) might only be able to maintain a reasonable level of interaction with their supervisor, who would then double as their mentor. As was evidenced by Kram and Isabella (1985) in section 2.8, the availability of potential mentors was limited in this case, thus supervisory mentors for non-traditional mentoring relationships were considered. However, both organisations chose non-supervisory figures as mentors, on another work-site, on the advice of external human resource consultants. In these cases the mentors were in other Public Sector organisations.

None of the individual respondents to this study had a supervisor as their mentor, as indicated by the 82 questionnaires which were returned. Interestingly one respondent indicated during the interview phase of the research that his mentor had been his direct supervisor for a period of time prior to becoming his mentor.

Thus this study has found no instances where supervisors have been used as mentors in formal mentoring programs initiated by Public Sector organisations. This does not deny the possibility, of course, that employees have used their supervisors as mentors on an informal basis.

5.3 The provision of mentoring functions

As indicated in chapter three, the functions performed by both mentors and supervisors were measured through a questionnaire by asking respondents to comment on matching items. Specifically, pairs of these matching items were

used in the questionnaire to describe the extent to which both supervisors and mentors performed each specific behaviour, seen as indicative of each of the ten mentoring functions. Examples of these matching items were provided in chapter three.

Thus in investigating hypotheses one and two, the data analysis process involved the calculation of means, standard deviations and variances for each questionnaire item, and finally the performance of two-tailed t-tests on those means, providing a t value, consideration of the appropriate degrees of freedom and the resultant p value.

Additionally, one item relating to each function sought to investigate the preferences of respondents, asking them to comment on whether the mentor or the supervisor was their preferred provider of each function. In order to determine the general leaning of respondent's preferences, the mean response rate was calculated for these "preference" items. The mean response rate for each item was then compared to the mid point of the range, that is, 2.500.

The following description and elaboration of the results relevant to hypotheses one and two are based on the above data analysis process. While the results are described fully, the findings as they relate to each of the ten mentoring functions are depicted in both graphs and tables.

The graphs used to present the results for each mentoring function are intended to provide a visual point of comparison - thereby allowing an easy comparison of the mentor's and the supervisor's provision of each function. In each graph, items are written as y axis terms with the x axis indicating the mean of that item. Each item in the graph should be viewed in conjunction with its matching item so as to provide a visual comparison. For example, in Graph 1 "*My mentor provides written feedback regarding my performance*" and "*My supervisor provides written*

feedback regarding my performance” can be compared by simply looking at the mean values of each. In constructing the graphs and tables it was necessary to paraphrase some of the questionnaire items. However, the integrity of each item is maintained.

The tables used in this section provide not only a written form of the data included in the graphs but also the results of significance tests performed on each of the paired items. Indeed, each of the matching items are presented together in order to clearly show their level of significant difference. The graphs and tables should be examined in conjunction with the written explanation.

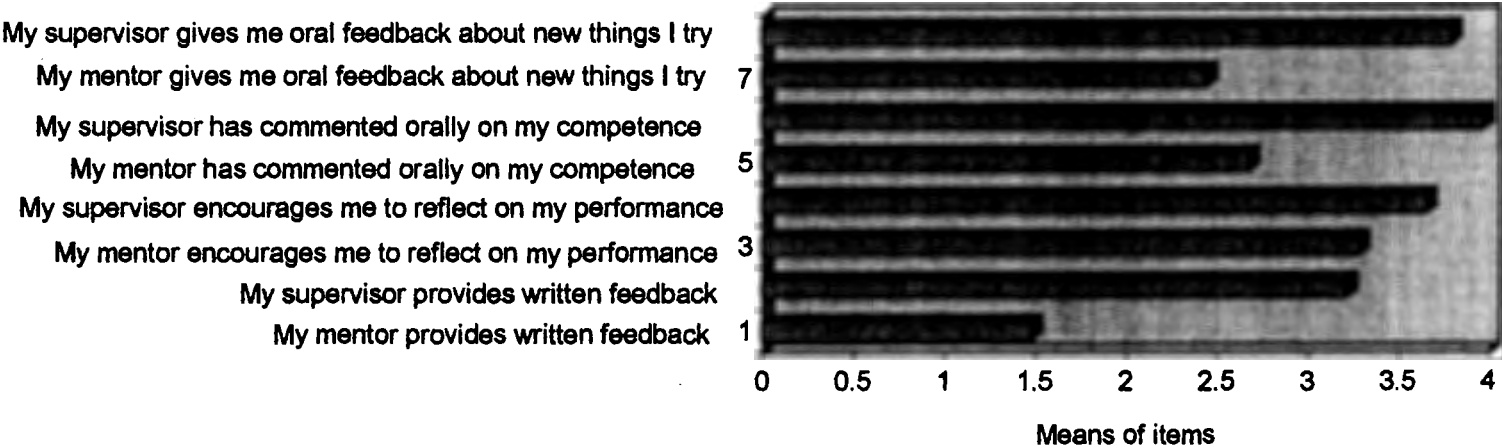
5.3.1 The function of Evaluator

Four matching pairs of items were used to examine the function of Evaluator. These items centered on the provision of feedback on the respondent’s performance in their job, including both informal and formal feedback, as shown in Graph 1. Means for items relating to the supervisor’s level of mentoring assistance as Evaluator were higher than those of the mentor in all cases.

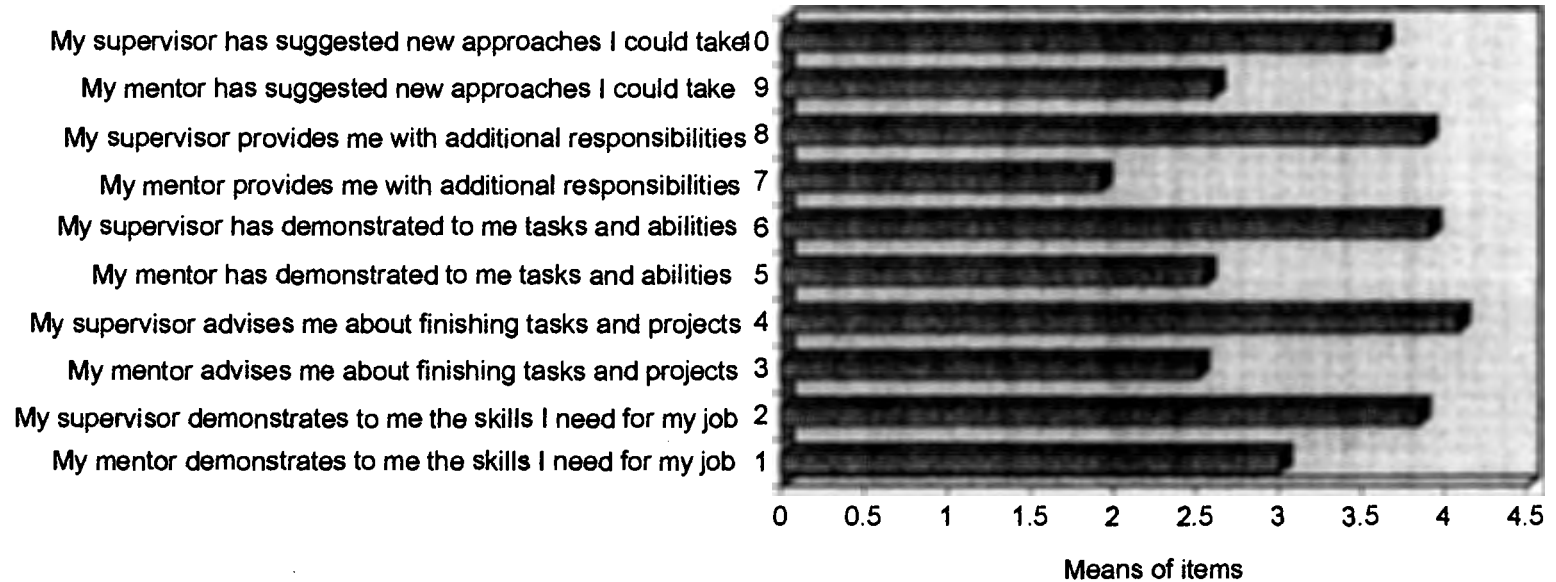
The supervisor’s propensity to provide oral feedback was greater than the mentor’s (3.96 compared to 2.66) as was the supervisor’s tendency to comment on new things respondents had tried in their job (3.78 compared to 2.43 for the mentor). Both results were indicative of a highly significant difference ($t = 7.51$, $p = 0.00$ and $t = -7.27$, $p = 0.00$ respectively).

Encouraging the respondent to reflect on their performance was provided to a greater extent by the supervisor (3.64 compared to 3.26 for the mentor). These results were deemed to be significantly different ($t = -2.03$ and $p = 0.04$). The supervisor’s tendency to provide written feedback was greater than the mentor’s (3.20 compared to 1.47) indicating a difference which was highly significant ($t = -11.88$ and $p = 0.00$). These results are presented in Table 11.

Graph One: Mentors/Supervisors as Evaluator



Graph Two: Mentors/Supervisors as Coach



The results presented in Graph 1 and Table 11 may be explained to some extent by the comments of interview respondents.

The highly significant difference between supervisors and mentors in providing written evaluations of respondent's performance may be explained to some extent by the supervisor's role in evaluation systems adopted by organisations and also by the mentors perceived isolation from the respondent's work.

Supervisors performed a dominant role in the performance appraisal and management systems in many of the organisations in this study. Several respondents (5, 12 and 13) indicated that their supervisor assessed their performance in written form against the goals set in their position description. In other cases (Respondent 17), such written evaluation by the supervisor was performed annually for the purpose of incremental pay increases, or to further professional development programs (Respondent 7). Several respondents (3,4,5,6,9 and 10), as graduate employees, worked within a "unit" work arrangement. Thus the supervisor provided formal written evaluation when the respondent concluded each work rotation within these units.

However, as evidenced by the data, several instances of written evaluation by the mentor were uncovered. Respondent 14 utilised her mentor for the evaluation of specific tasks related to her job. This approach was initiated by the respondent who determined that this was the type of assistance she required. This assistance was related to the affirmative action initiative which drove the adoption of the mentoring program in Organisation G, a program aimed at developing additional skills in female employees. That respondent sought evaluation of her skill development from her mentor in order to advance her career past that of executive assistant.

Table 11
Paired Samples Statistics: Evaluator

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
My supervisor gives me oral feedback about new things I try	3.7821	.9486			
My mentor gives me oral feedback about new things I try	2.4359	1.2124	-7.275	77	.000
My supervisor has commented orally on my competence	3.9615	.9595			
My mentor has commented orally on my competence	2.6667	1.3159	7.517	77	.000
My supervisor encourages me to reflect on my performance	3.6410	.9531			
My mentor encourages me to reflect on my performance	3.2692	1.3061	-2.036	77	.045
My supervisor provides written feedback	3.2051	1.1662			
My mentor provides written feedback	1.4744	.9359	-11.886	77	.000

Table 12
Paired Samples Statistics: Coach

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
My supervisor has suggested new approaches I could take	3.6026	1.0236			
My mentor has suggested new approaches I could take	2.5897	1.2529	-5.680	77	.000
My supervisor provides me with additional responsibilities	3.8718	.9851			
My mentor provides me with additional responsibilities	1.9103	1.0343	-10.946	77	.000
My supervisor has demonstrated to me tasks and abilities	3.8974	.9479			
My mentor has demonstrated to me tasks and abilities	2.5385	1.2347	-7.642	77	.000
My supervisor advises me about finishing tasks and projects	4.0769	.8493			
My mentor advises me about finishing tasks and projects	2.5000	1.4027	-8.075	77	.000
My supervisor demonstrates to me the skills I need for my job	3.8333	.9726			
My mentor demonstrates to me the skills I need for my job	3.0000	1.3387	4.214	77	.000

In another example, the mentor passed on comments from other organisational members - comments which praised the work performance of the respondent. Though this was not evaluation by the mentor as such, this did constitute feedback from the mentor to Respondent 1 about his work performance and was related to Organisation A's goal to fast track the development of graduate employees.

Many examples were forthcoming with regard to informal or oral evaluation, particularly from supervisors. Graduate employees often found supervisors generous with day-to-day praise, providing immediate feedback on the tasks in which they were currently engaged. With the majority of respondents, this feedback only came when solicited, however Respondent 15 indicated that both her mentor and supervisor were forthcoming whether or not she asked for that assistance. Respondent 14 commented that the extent of assistance in oral or informal evaluation encompassed comments such as "You could have done that better" or "You did that really well". Thus, it appears the extent of assistance provided to the respondent by the supervisor and the mentor may be influenced by the personalities and managerial style of both parties, an issue that is well outside the scope of this study.

Respondent 17 felt that the extent of evaluation by both the supervisor and mentor depended to a great extent on the nature of the work performed. As her job is quite robotic and repetitive Respondent 17 felt that there was no room for ad hoc praise as there would be where one-off tasks are performed. "Because it's your job you just do it" was her comment. Working in the unit structure of Organisation H meant that she had predefined roles which she had performed numerous times, to the extent that she felt little scope existed for evaluation to be provided by either her mentor or supervisor.

The extent of evaluation, whether oral or written, appeared also to be influenced by the location of the mentor. Respondent 6 felt that the mentor was not in the

right position to evaluate her performance, "...he is not on the spot, when I do see him it is for short sessions to discuss specific issues, not general performance". Although this respondent's mentor worked for the same organisation, his position as a director meant that he was removed from the respondent's work and so unable to evaluate it. Respondent 13 felt similarly, commenting that "contact with the mentor was periodic and may not be specifically related to work content".

This situation was echoed by Respondent 12 whose organisation had matched employees with mentors from other Public Sector organisations. Thus the supervisor, who was more familiar with his work, provided greater and more immediate informal and formal evaluation. Removal from the respondent's day-to-day work meant that the mentor was not familiar with that respondent's work tasks (Respondent 8) although the mentor worked on the same site. Respondent 6 commented that, "Of what the mentor sees, my reports are merely a small part of the total work that I do. Therefore the mentor cannot comment on my job performance in any authoritative way." Respondent 14 indicated that her mentor never saw her in the work context, as the mentor worked in another Public Sector organisation, so to evaluate her work would be extremely difficult for the mentor. In a similar vein, Respondent 5 felt that the mentor would only get her side of the story on performance and thus would be unable to provide impartial and objective evaluation.

Thus, the mentor's isolation from the respondent rendered the mentor unable to evaluate performance. Clearly, respondents with mentors off-site or mentors in high positions in the same organisation felt that their mentor was unable to evaluate their work. Several respondents felt that it was more logical for the supervisor to evaluate their performance because "...they are familiar with what you have done" (Respondent 9).

These findings, relevant to issues of demographic proximity investigated in hypothesis three, will be discussed further in section 5.4.2.

Respondent 10 believed that her organisation's mentoring program was aimed at the socialisation of graduate employees, thus operating outside the performance management system maintained by her organisation, as did Respondent 12 who saw mentoring as "nothing to do with evaluation". Supporting this, Respondent 3 felt that because the mentor was removed from his day-to-day work, he was unable to recommend personal development measures that could be picked up through the performance management process. Thus, the mentor was unable to identify areas of need for the respondent to the same extent as the supervisor.

Conversely, Respondent 15 felt that if the mentor had been familiar with her work she would prefer to be evaluated by him, believing that this would be "more objective" given that the mentor was "a third party, distant from the work scene and taking an impartial view".

Item three of the questionnaire stated, *"I would prefer my mentor, rather than my supervisor, to evaluate my performance at work"* Responses gained a mean of 1.88 compared to a median score of 2.50. Clearly respondents would prefer the supervisor, rather than the mentor, to evaluate their performance at work. This finding supports the results obtained through the questionnaire and interviews.

5.3.2 The function of Coach

The function of Coach was represented by five behavioural indicators, with on-the-job skills as a general focus. Mentor and supervisor items included such behaviours as demonstrating skills, providing advice about how to complete tasks, suggesting new approaches and also providing the respondent with additional tasks. Comparative results of these items are presented in Graph 2.

As with the function of Evaluator, supervisors were deemed by respondents to have provided greater assistance as Coach than mentors had. With regard to the demonstration of skills, supervisors (3.83) were judged to provide more assistance than mentors (3.00), a difference which was highly significant ($t = 4.21$ and $p = 0.00$). A highly significant difference ($t = -7.64$ and $p = 0.00$) was also found in the demonstration of tasks by supervisors and mentors, with supervisors providing this to a greater extent (3.89 compared to 2.53).

Supervisors also provided greater advice about completing tasks at work than mentors did (4.07 compared to 2.50), again a highly significant difference ($t = -8.07$ and $p = 0.00$).

The provision of additional responsibilities at work was also performed to a greater extent by supervisors than mentors (3.87 compared to 1.91), a highly significant difference ($t = -10.94$ and $p = 0.00$).

It appears that supervisors were apt to suggest new approaches to respondents in order to help them complete their work. This was done to a greater extent by supervisors than mentors (3.60 compared to 2.58), a difference which was deemed to be highly significant ($t = -5.68$ and $p = 0.00$). Results related to the function of Coach are presented in Table 12.

As with the function of Evaluator, interview respondents generally felt that the supervisor was better placed than the mentor to act as Coach. Supervisors were instrumental in “showing the ropes” and providing the “nitty gritty about how to do a task” (Respondent 10) and “helping with day-to-day tasks” (Respondent 9). In some cases, where respondents worked within a statutory authority requiring specific regulations be followed (Respondents 9, 10 and 11), the supervisor was required to demonstrate tasks and approve work, particularly in the early stages of the respondent’s employment. It was common among respondents who were

graduate employees (in Organisations A, B, C, E and H) that, as their tenure with the organisation increased, their supervisors provided coaching only in abnormal or less regular duties (Respondent 15). Generally the onus was on the respondent to seek this kind of assistance.

These findings are consistent with the premise underlying Situational Leadership Theory, outlined in section 2.8, which sees the subordinate turning to the supervisor less for assistance as they develop greater maturity in their job. Where subordinate maturity had developed during the respondent's tenure with the organisation, the subordinate required less assistance from the supervisor. This relates to the respondent's ability to plan and carry out their work tasks, thus forging a link between SLT and the Coach function, as suggested in section 2.8. Respondents indicated that after some time with the organisation they were able to carry out most tasks without assistance, some tasks required the assistance of colleagues while other, less regular tasks required the assistance of their supervisor. This mirrors the varying levels of respondent maturity suggested by SLT in terms of the roles of supervisors and other colleagues in providing coaching assistance.

These results are also consistent with the findings of Burke, et al. (1994) outlined in section 2.8 which showed that supervisors tended to emerge as mentoring figures from within naturally occurring hierarchical relationships. Additionally, respondent's tendency to utilise multiple sources for the provision of mentoring functions, is consistent with the notion of "Learning Support Mentoring" offered by Gibb and Megginson (1993) and explained in section 2.7.

Other instances showed that some supervisors had adopted a proactive approach to the Coach function. One supervisor "ensured a variety of tasks and exposure to fill in the blanks in (my) experience" (Respondent 12). In such instances the supervisor recognised that coaching was integral to their managerial role. Where

the supervisor was unable to provide adequate coaching assistance, they had often directed the respondent to someone in the organisation who could assist them (Respondent 6). This was particularly evident where respondents worked in a unit work structure, as in Organisations C, E and H.

While supervisors were dominant, mentors also performed as Coach to some extent. This was confined to teaching mainly generic knowledge and skills. For example, Respondent 12, in choosing a mentor, was “looking for someone who would let (her) in on their window”. Indeed this respondent shadowed her mentor and, through that, received coaching in skills such as making decisions, handling correspondence and maintaining effective working relations with colleagues. Such learning from the mentor was a “process of watching and putting the patterns together”. Respondent 12 felt that the coaching provided by her mentor was “transferable in general terms”. In support, Respondents 13 and 14 commented that the mentor was useful “in generic coaching, broad support and in ways of approaching things”. Some specifics were evident however. Respondent 12 chose her mentor specifically for his expertise in information technology, identifying that as an area in which she wanted to develop further.

The mentor clearly did not have to be located in the same organisation to provide coaching assistance. However, where they were not, this assistance was usually limited to the teaching of generic skills.

Respondent 12 indicated that she would prefer the supervisor to act as Coach because “he would know more of the context in which I worked”. This is interesting given the obviously high level of support that this respondent’s mentor provided. Supporting this, Respondent 15 indicated that the “type of advice sought was too specific”, thus ruling out the mentor, unless they happened to be a specialist in that particular area. While Respondent 14 gained coaching from her mentor in generic work related tasks, “because of time restrictions, (her)

supervisor was the one (she) went to for on-the-job assistance". Clearly convenience is integral to seeking assistance through the Coach function. Respondents often preferred to obtain coaching assistance from the supervisor because "they are involved directly in the job" and "have first hand knowledge of it" (Respondent 6). Respondent 8 felt that his supervisor provided "adequate supervision" and so had "no need to go to others". That respondent also felt that because his mentor did not work in the area "it would not be relevant to ask him technical questions".

Interestingly, some respondents felt that the mentor thought their skills were not of interest to the respondent. This may emphasise a lack of congruence between the mentor's and the respondent's work contexts.

In some ways the mentor was seen as a useful coach. Respondent 13 felt that where competition existed between the respondent and their supervisor, the mentor may effectively perform the Coach function, as the mentor would be removed from the competitive arena. She commented that, "It may be beneficial to have another figure to talk to". Additionally, Respondent 4, as a graduate employee, valued the mentor's coaching because going to the mentor for assistance rather than to the supervisor "would stop you looking stupid to your supervisor". Despite the assistance provided by Organisation B's unit work structure, this respondent valued the opportunity to maintain dignity by approaching the mentor for that assistance. Indeed Respondent 1 suspected that his organisation felt that the mentor's primary role was to provide assistance with day-to-day tasks, in accordance with the assistance provided to graduate employees.

Respondents appeared to have a clear idea of who should perform the function of Coach. Item 27, *"I would prefer my mentor, rather than my supervisor, demonstrate the tasks which I need for my job"*, gained a mean response rating of

2.1410 while item 16, *"I would prefer my supervisor, rather than my mentor, to teach me the skills I need for my job"* gained a mean of 3.7051. Both of these results suggest a preference for the supervisor to perform the Coach function.

5.3.3 The function of Career Counselor

The function of Career Counselor was represented in this study by two behaviours which focused on the mentor or supervisor actively increasing the respondent's awareness of future career opportunities and possible career paths.

Respondents felt that the mentor provided more assistance than supervisors in their identification of future career possibilities, although this was only slightly higher in response (3.15 compared to the supervisor 3.14) and did not represent a significant difference ($t = -0.06$ and $p = 0.94$).

Conversely, respondents felt that supervisors discussed career advancement with them to a greater extent than mentors did (3.61 compared to mentors 3.33), although, once again, this did not represent a significant difference ($t = 1.46$ and $p = 0.14$). These results are outlined in Graph 3 and Table 13.

Clearly, respondents felt that both the mentor and the supervisor provided assistance in Career Counseling. While both helped the respondent to see future career possibilities almost to the same extent, the difference in the assistance provided in simply discussing career advancement was partially explained by interview respondents.

Where the mentor worked in the same organisation as the respondent, some discussion about career possibilities was evident. Respondent 9 commented that the "mentor may have a better idea of where you can go in terms of a career path because (they) have a good overview of the organisation". This was supported by Respondent 5 who felt that the mentor's advice was crucial as he "had worked in

many areas of the organisation” and so had a wealth of experience. At a different level, Respondent 15’s mentor discussed the in-house training offered by the organisation in an attempt to tailor this to the respondent’s developing career.

Respondent 17 was grateful to her mentor for this assistance. In pursuing another position, her mentor was able to make the respondent aware of the relevant skills and knowledge she possessed and thus build up her confidence to apply. This assistance extended to mock interview preparation. Respondent 13 had anticipated the type of assistance she wanted from her mentor, career advice being central. This may have been integral to the respondent actually receiving that assistance. However, while Respondent 17’s mentor was located in the same organisation, Respondent 13’s mentor was located externally.

Thus, the mentor was able to provide assistance even where they worked in another organisation. Respondent 15 claimed that her mentor had provided help with preparing her job applications and would contact the respondent if she felt that there was a position available which the mentor felt may suit her. In this instance, perhaps the mentor was encouraged to provide that assistance because the respondent had made the mentor aware of her skills and background and also her desire to move into another position.

As is evident from the results, supervisors also provided career advice. Respondent 12 asked her supervisor for career advice, making it known that that was the type of assistance she required. To this end, the supervisor provided additional work opportunities, allowing the respondent to develop more comprehensive experience. She felt that the supervisor had provided greater career advice because he worked in the context in which she was working. Indeed, the supervisor “took an interest in her studies outside of work and asked (her) to apply them (to her work).” In similar terms, Respondent 15, a graduate employee, indicated that her supervisor had been instrumental in developing a job rotation for

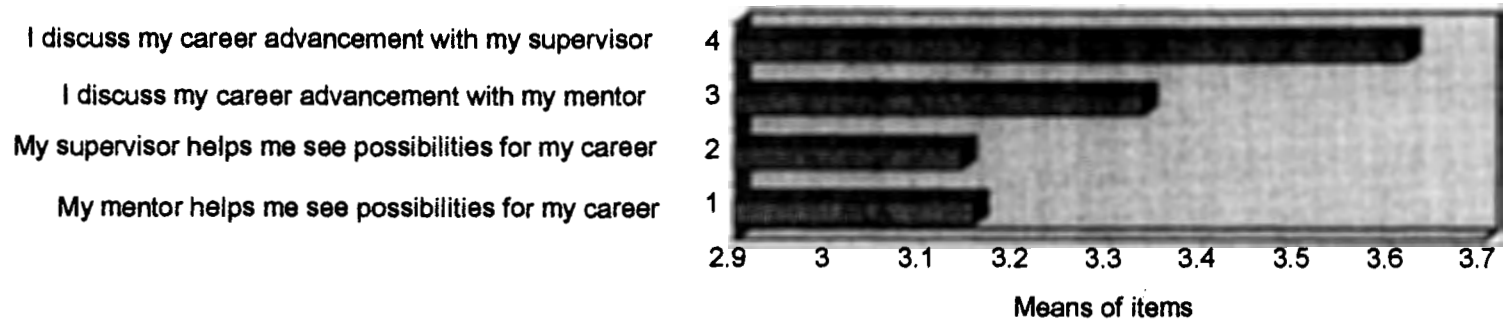
her which would ensure exposure which was beneficial to career development. Conversely, Respondent 3, also a graduate employee, indicated that her mentor had provided this type of assistance.

Respondent 14 felt that supervisors were valuable for career advice because they “worked together on a daily basis” and “the supervisor was inclined to say whether he felt (she) could do something and what (she) might be good at”. Conversely, Respondent 17 discussed career possibilities with her supervisor because she felt that she may have been stereotyped into a clerical role by the supervisor. By discussing career possibilities she was letting the supervisor know that she had other ambitions in the organisation in the future.

In some cases the supervisor was approached for career advice because the respondent was concerned about the constant state of change within the organisation and felt that the supervisor could shed valuable light on the effect such changes may have on her career.

The supervisor was not used for career discussion in one case because the respondent (9) had felt that “the supervisor wanted (her) to stay where (she) is” and so the respondent was apt to “raise career points with the supervisor more as a courtesy rather than an attempt to seek advice”. This respondent also commented that her “supervisor appeared interested in her progress in the unit only” and so did not entertain a broader picture of her progress throughout the organisation or elsewhere. The respondent felt that the supervisor had an “ulterior motive” for her to stay in the organisation. Respondent 11 also felt that his supervisor was interested in the stability of his unit, thus he was reluctant to discuss career advancement with him.

Graph Three: Mentors/Supervisors as Career Counselor



Graph Four: Mentors/Supervisors as Advocate

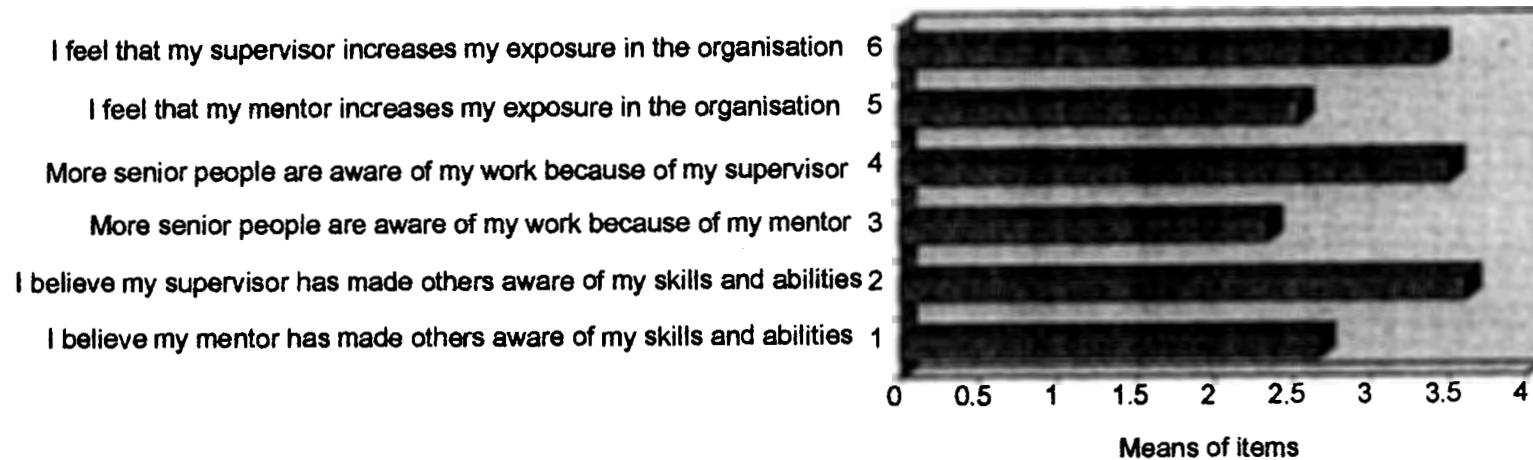


Table 13
Paired Samples Statistics: Career Counselor

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
I discuss my career advancement with my supervisor	3.6154	1.0473			
I discuss my career advancement with my mentor	3.3333	1.3644	1.468	77	.146
My supervisor helps me see possibilities for my career	3.1410	1.1813			
My mentor helps me see possibilities for my career	3.1538	1.3777	-.065	77	.948

Table 14
Paired Samples Statistics: Advocate

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
I feel that my supervisor increases my exposure in the organisation	3.4103	1.0982			
I feel that my mentor increases my exposure in the organisation	2.5385	1.0154	5.578	77	.000
More senior people are aware of my work because of my supervisor	3.2051	1.1991			
More senior people are aware of my work because of my mentor	2.3333	1.1243	5.141	77	.000
I believe my supervisor has made others aware of my skills and abilities	3.6026	.9979			
I believe my supervisor has made others aware of my skills and abilities	2.6667	1.1472	6.159	77	.000

In a similar context, Respondent 17 felt that she was not supported by her supervisor when she applied for a new position within the same organisation. The respondent believed that this was because the supervisor had trained her to fulfill her current position and so wanted to reap the benefit of that training investment in the future. Respondent 13 felt that in a competitive environment, where credit for achievements may be taken by others, career advice from the supervisor would not tend to be sought.

As the role of the mentor and the supervisor in providing the Career Counselor function was balanced, so were respondent's preferences. Item 27, *"I would rather my mentor, not my supervisor, advise me on career advancement"*, attracted a mean rating of 2.93. Clearly, respondents leaned slightly toward the mentor to fulfill this function.

5.3.4 The function of Advocate

The function of Advocate was measured by three behavioural indicators. Broadly, these centered on the mentor or supervisor making others in the organisation aware of the respondent's skills, abilities and contribution to the organisation and increasing the respondent's exposure to senior management.

The supervisor was deemed by respondents to have provided this function to a greater extent. In terms of the supervisor making others in the organisation aware of the respondent's skills and abilities, supervisors were rated higher than mentors (3.60 compared to 2.66). This represented a highly significant difference ($t = 6.15$ and $p = 0.00$).

Respondents felt that supervisors made senior members of the organisation aware of their work to a greater extent than mentors did (3.20 compared to 2.33) which also represented a highly significant difference ($t = 5.14$ and $p = 0.00$).

Similarly supervisors were seen by respondents to have provided them with greater exposure than mentors had done (3.41 compared to 2.53), a highly significant difference ($t = 5.57$ and $p = 0.00$). These results are presented in Graph 4 and Table 14.

It was clear during interviews that respondents felt it was difficult to comment on this function. Any action by the mentor or supervisor which advocated for the respondent, by definition, happened outside the respondent's direct observation. Thus, many of the respondent's comments focused on the extent to which they believed such Advocate behaviour had occurred. Illustrating this dilemma, Respondent 9 had "heard that (her) supervisor had said good things about her" to other managers.

However, respondents were able to comment on whether they felt that their mentor or supervisor was appropriate to Advocate for them. Respondent 9 felt that her mentor was a good Advocate "because of his high position in the organisation" and his subsequent "umbrella of influence". That respondent's mentor held the position of director within the same organisation, a position which the respondent perceived to carry great credibility and one which gave the mentor an excellent knowledge of wider organisational policy.

Other views were evident. Respondent 12 saw mentoring as nothing to do with advocacy, commenting that because her mentoring program involved only females as protégés, male colleagues may take offense to advocacy of her by her mentor. Thus, she was not comfortable with the notion of her mentor acting as Advocate for her. Effectively, Organisation F's affirmative action initiative which underlined its mentoring program served to eliminate the Advocate function for this respondent.

Similarly, Respondent 13 saw the mentoring program as developmental and not related to sponsorship towards a better position. Respondent 14 also felt that mentoring was removed from advocacy as her mentor worked with another organisation, making advocacy difficult. She also added that she would not feel comfortable asking the mentor what she had said about her to others.

Many concrete examples of supervisory advocacy existed. Respondent 13 had been asked by a director to complete a particular project after her supervisor had commented that she was particularly skilled in that area. In that instance, Respondent 13 felt delighted because such comments, having come from the supervisor, carried credibility. Similarly, respondent 15 was asked by a senior manager to be involved on a committee as a result of her supervisor's recommendation. Colleagues have asked Respondent 14 to assist with some tasks because they "have heard you're very good at this", comments attributed to her supervisor. Respondent 7 indicated that his supervisor had been prompted by other managers to comment on his performance.

Respondent 17 felt that the supervisor was in a better position to perform this role because he "has the power to be aware of what (the respondent) can and does achieve". This was supported by Respondent 13, who felt that the supervisor "has day-to-day interaction and an intimate knowledge of how you have worked...sees what you can do and how you're affected by things (pressures)". Conversely, the mentor's view may be "quite narrowly focused as it is only related to one section of work". Respondent 13 felt that because the mentor was in another organisation, he wasn't familiar enough with her work and so could not perform the function of Advocate.

Respondent 3 indicated that because his mentor had previously been his supervisor very early in his time with the organisation, then his mentor was in a good position to advocate for him. He felt, though, that the mentor should not normally fulfill

this role as they would have to rely on the comments of others, perhaps those who had worked with the respondent.

The comments of respondents in the interviews are supported strongly by the results of item 52, *"I would rather my supervisor, not my mentor, make others aware of my achievements"*, which gained a mean response of 3.47. This indicated a general preference for the supervisor to act as Advocate for the respondent.

5.3.5 The function of Catalyst

The function of Catalyst was represented by four behavioural indicators. Mentors and supervisors had the potential to motivate and inspire respondents to achieve their best, to encourage the development of ideas and to set goals together.

Supervisors were deemed by respondents to provide greater assistance in this function. More specifically, respondents felt that their supervisors had motivated them to achieve their best to a greater extent than mentors had (3.65 compared to 2.91), reflecting a highly significant difference ($t = -4.40$ and $p = 0.00$).

Considering the encouragement to be creative and develop new ideas, respondents felt again that supervisors had provided more assistance than mentors (3.83 compared to 3.20), also a highly significant difference ($t = -3.40$ and $p = 0.00$).

Respondents saw their supervisor as a greater source of new ideas and inspiration than their mentor (3.52 compared to 3.24). This was not, however, a significant difference ($t = -1.43$ and $p = 0.15$).

A highly significant difference (such that $t = 7.00$ and $p = 0.00$) was evident in goal setting. Respondents indicated that supervisors had provided greater

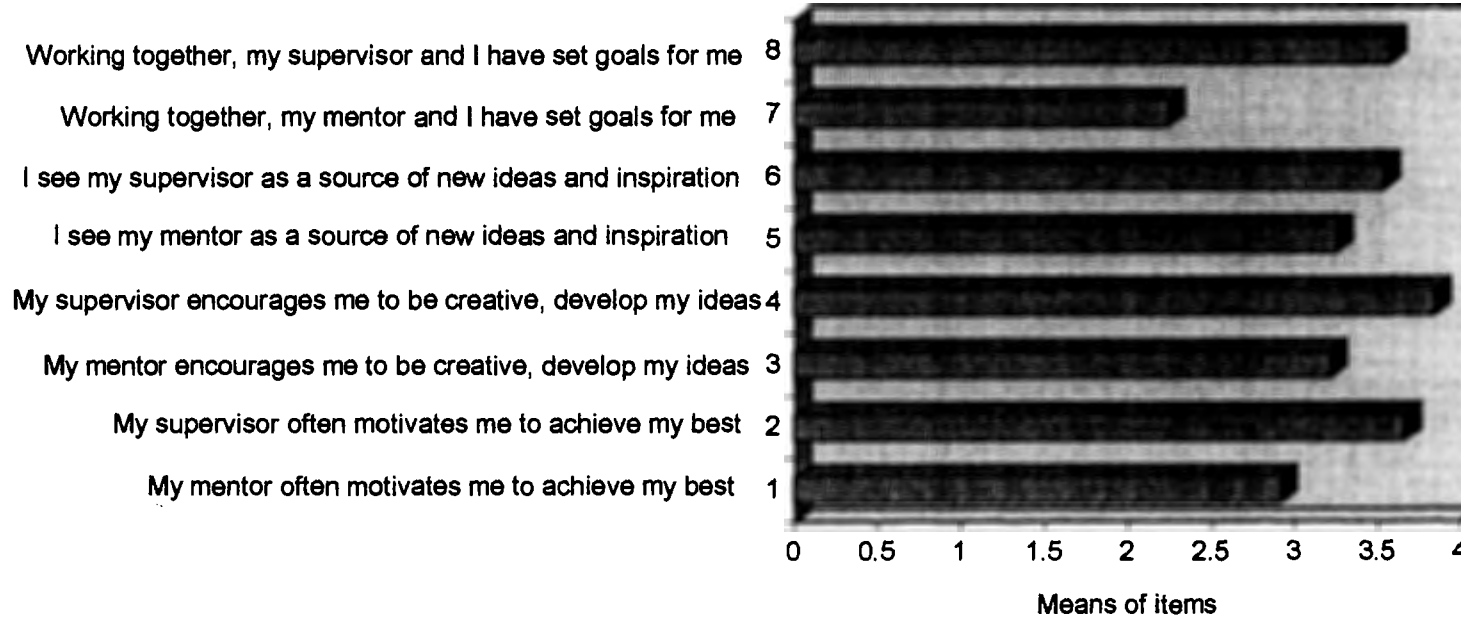
assistance in goal setting to improve performance (3.56 compared to mentors 2.23). Results for these findings can be seen in Graph 5 and Table 15.

Many of the respondents in this study who were graduates believed that the role of the mentor or supervisor as Catalyst, or motivator, was not necessary. Respondent 1 indicated that because he had moved into his graduate appointment from another career he was already motivated to achieve his best in his new chosen career. Other respondents, who as graduates had commenced employment for the first time, felt that simply working in a new environment and their first full time job was stimulation enough. Therefore they did not look to others for motivation.

It appears however, that mentors and supervisors motivated respondents in some areas. For example, Respondents 5 and 7 indicated that their mentors had motivated them to learn more about the organisation in which they worked, simply through possessing that knowledge and communicating it to them. Consistent with Assumption Three, this may also be illustrative of the Savvy Insider function. Both Respondents 14 and 17 commented that their mentors had motivated them to apply for other positions, while Respondent 3 said that his supervisor had motivated him to work within many varied areas and units within the organisation when he perhaps had not been inclined to do so.

It is clear from respondent's comments that while motivation as a general function may not have been perceived to be strongly provided by both mentors and to some extent supervisors, motivation does exist within the assistance provided by these figures but attributable to other mentoring functions. This again illustrates clearly the essence of Assumption Three, outlined in section 2.10, which suggests that any interaction may be indicative of both career-related and psychosocial functions. Thus it is obvious from an examination of the Catalyst function that interactions which serve to motivate the respondent may be descriptive of any one of the ten mentoring functions.

Graph Five: Mentors/Supervisors as Catalyst



Graph Six: Mentors/Supervisors as Mediator

I ask my supervisor for assistance in relationships with others
I ask my mentor for assistance in relationships with others
My supervisor gives feedback about relationships with others
My mentor gives feedback about relationships with others
My supervisor provides help with conflicts I have with others
My mentor provides help with conflicts I have with others
I am comfortable discussing any conflicts with my supervisor
I am comfortable discussing any conflicts with my mentor

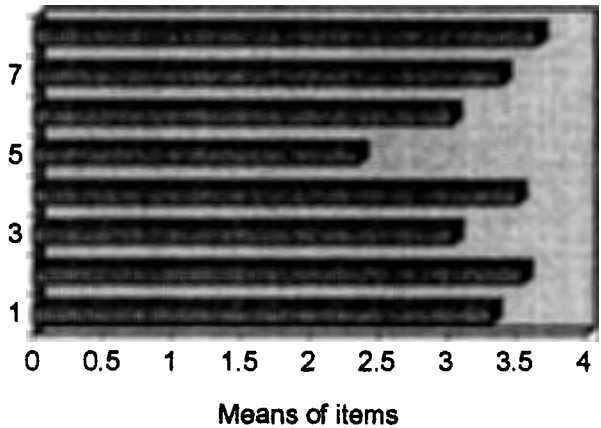


Table 15
Paired Samples Statistics: Catalyst

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Working together, my supervisor and I have set goals for me	3.5641	1.2230			
Working together, my mentor and I have set goals for me	2.2308	1.2159	7.009	77	.000
I see my supervisor as a source of new ideas and inspiration	3.5256	1.0285			
I see my mentor as a source of new ideas and inspiration	3.2436	1.2811	1.430	77	.157
My supervisor encourages me to be creative, develop my ideas	3.8333	.9455			
My mentor encourages me to be creative, develop my ideas	3.2051	1.3227	-3.407	77	.001
My supervisor often motivates me to achieve my best	3.6538	1.0298			
My mentor often motivates me to achieve my best	2.9103	1.2503	-4.409	77	.000

Table 16
Paired Samples Statistics: Mediator

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
I ask my supervisor for assistance in relationships with others	3.6410	.9666			
I ask my supervisor for assistance in relationships with others	3.3846	1.2192	1.686	77	.096
My supervisor gives feedback about relationships with others	3.0256	1.1840			
My mentor gives feedback about relationships with others	2.3462	1.0042	4.257	77	.000
My supervisor provides help with conflicts I have with others	3.5000	1.0032			
My mentor provides help with conflicts I have with others	3.0385	1.3998	2.572	77	.012
I am comfortable discussing any conflicts with my supervisor	3.5385	1.0406			
I am comfortable discussing any conflicts with my mentor	3.3205	1.3338	1.179	77	.242

Respondents clearly felt that the supervisor was the better placed motivator. Item 44 of the questionnaire, *"I feel that my supervisor is better placed to motivate me rather than my mentor"* attracted a response mean of 3.74, indicating a preference for the supervisor.

5.3.6 The function of Mediator

Four behavioural indicators described the function of Mediator in this study. These indicators focused generally on the supervisor or mentor discussing with the respondent any conflicts or difficulties they may be having with colleagues in their place of work. This function deals exclusively with work-related conflicts or difficulties.

A highly significant difference ($t = 4.25$ and $p = 0.00$) was found in the feedback provided to respondents regarding their relationships with others in the organisation, such that supervisors were the dominant source of assistance (3.02 compared to mentors 2.34).

Supervisors were also rated higher than mentors in the assistance provided to respondents in dealing with conflicts they have had with others in the organisation (3.50 compared to mentors 3.03). This represented a significant difference ($t = 2.57$ and $p = 0.01$).

There was no significant difference evident in the other two behavioural indicators for this function. Although respondents rated the supervisor higher than the mentor in the level of comfort they feel about discussing conflicts with them (3.53 compared to mentors 3.32), as mentioned, this was not a significant difference ($t = 1.17$ and $p = 0.24$).

Similarly, respondents felt more able to ask supervisors for assistance with working relationships than their mentors (3.64 compared to 3.38) although this

again did not represent a significant difference ($t = 1.68$ and $p = 0.09$). These results are presented in Graph 6 and Table 16.

Comments by interview respondents indicated that the extent of Mediation performed by mentors and supervisors depended on whether that respondent had had cause to seek such assistance. In many cases, interview respondents indicated that they had not.

As was the case with the function of Career Counselor, respondents were divided as to whether the mentor or the supervisor was appropriate for providing Mediation. Often, the choice of mentor or supervisor depended on several factors; the nature and seriousness of the problem or conflict, the personalities concerned, confidentiality and also convenience.

Supporting the mentor as Mediator, Respondent 10 indicated that the “mentor was enshrined in secrecy” and that she would discuss conflicts knowing that confidentiality would be upheld. With this in mind, Respondent 15 chose the mentor for support, believing that “the supervisor would not keep it under his hat”. She relished the opportunity to speak candidly to another about the problem.

Respondent 17 was grateful to the mentor who had provided strategies to deal with a personality conflict, something the respondent did not want to discuss with the supervisor. In this instance, she considered the mentor’s view valuable, perceiving it as unbiased and independent. Interestingly, the respondent had approached her supervisor for assistance with the same matter and was told that it was her problem and that “she should sort it out”.

Seeking similar assistance, Respondent 13 felt that her mentor was never intrusive to such problems but offered pertinent suggestions. Similarly, Respondent 13 felt that such problems were too close to home, thus the mentor was her clear choice.

Others considered the supervisor to be better placed. Respondent 12 sought assistance in conflict management from the supervisor because “he knows the people and the personalities”, although acknowledging that “a fresh, outside view from the mentor” may be beneficial. Respondent 14 sought advice from the supervisor, not only because he was “on the spot” but also because “he may have seen something she hadn’t realised”. She believed that the supervisor may have a different perspective. Respondent 2 felt that “it may be helpful to speak with the supervisor as there may be a hidden agenda that you are not aware of”. Respondent 4 sought assistance from his supervisor because of the supervisor’s convenient location.

Although many respondents had not required their mentor or supervisor to act as Mediator, they did have a preference as to who they would seek such assistance from. The preference often depended on the nature of the problem. Indeed, Respondent 13 indicated that the nature of the problems for which she sought the mentor’s assistance were far more serious and had “festered for long periods”, while the problems she had asked her supervisor to assist with were less serious and more immediate in nature. Similarly Respondent 4 indicated that he would see the relevant colleague to sort out petty matters, while problems of a more serious nature would require the assistance of someone removed from the problem, such as the mentor. Respondent 5 would seek this type of assistance from the mentor because they are removed from the situation and “you wouldn’t step on any toes in the process”.

Respondent’s preferences were illustrated by item 61, *“I would rather my supervisor, not my mentor, give me advice on my relationships with others in the organisation”*. A mean of 3.12 gained for this item indicated that respondents felt a preference towards the supervisor for the fulfillment of the Mediator function.

5.3.7 The function of Savvy Insider

The function of Savvy Insider was represented by three behavioural indicators which focused on the supervisor or mentor helping the respondent to understand how to manage in the organisation, get things done and cope with political aspects of the way the organisation runs. Broadly, it is a function associated with helping the respondent settle into the organisation.

Supervisors were rated higher than mentors in all aspects of this function. Indeed, respondents felt that their supervisor had helped them settle into the organisation to a far greater extent than their mentor (3.60 compared to 2.97) which represented a highly significant difference ($t = -3.09$ and $p = 0.00$).

Similarly, respondents indicated that supervisors had increased their understanding of appropriate ways of doing things in the organisation to a greater extent than mentors (3.91 compared to 3.33). This result was also indicative of a highly significant difference ($t = -2.91$ and $p = 0.00$).

There was no significant difference found in the extent to which mentors and supervisors offered advice about how to achieve goals ($t = 1.16$ and $p = 0.24$), although respondents did rate the supervisor slightly higher than the mentor in this regard (3.43 compared to 3.21). These results are indicated in Graph 7 and Table 17.

It appears from the comments of interview respondents that factors such as the position and location of the mentor and the supervisor in the organisation have some influence on the provision of the Savvy Insider function.

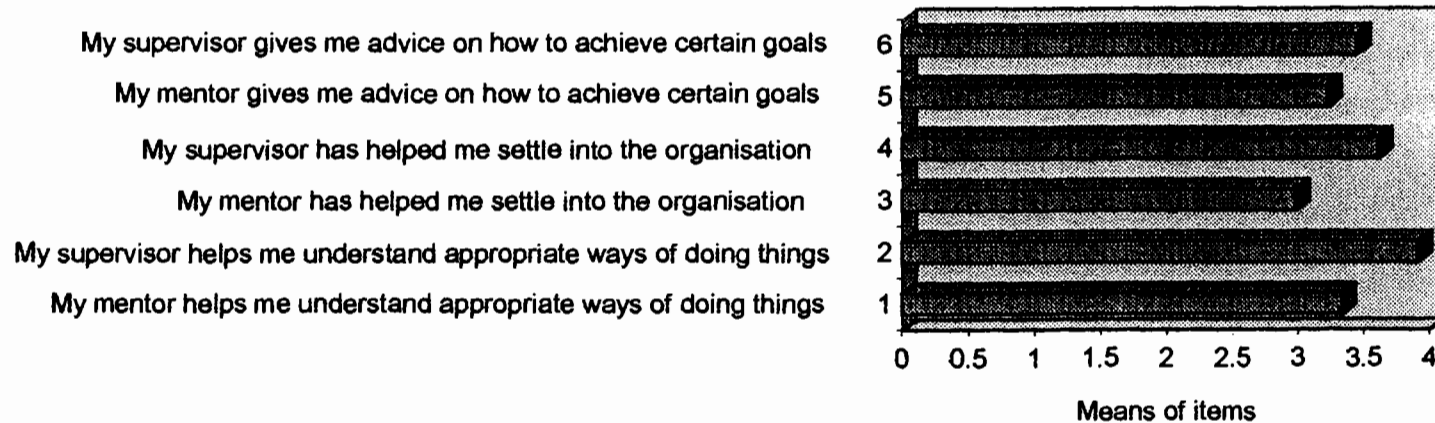
Perhaps understandably, the mentor's role as Savvy Insider seemed important to those respondents whose mentor was a member of the same organisation. The advice received was varied. For example, Respondent 10 gained valuable advice

from her mentor concerning job characteristics which were valued by colleagues, how things were done and what behaviours were consistent with the culture of the organisation. Her mentor also offered advice on organisational change and its potential affect on the respondent (assistance also offered in the realm of Career Counselor). Such discussion covered issues that the respondent would not come across in her day-to-day duties and thus, illustrated the benefit of a mentor who holds a high position in the organisation.

In the same way, Respondent 6 gained valuable insights from her mentor as he worked close to the CEO and so was tuned into high level policy decisions and initiatives. Many felt that the mentor was the best person to act as Savvy Insider as they were generally a high level person and, as such, had knowledge of the organisation's direction and culture. The dissemination of this knowledge extended to explaining the organisational chart and the roles of key personnel in the organisation. Respondent 9 felt that her mentor was a good Savvy Insider "because of his high position in the organisation" and his subsequent "umbrella of influence". Respondent 4 commented that while his mentor would have been the preferred choice for information regarding the organisation in the first three months of his tenure, at later stages he has sought this information from the colleague most likely to have it.

Thus the respondent's use of colleagues from which to gain organisational information is consistent with the findings of Ostroff and Kozlowski (1993), detailed in section 2.8. Although the mentor was utilised to some extent by graduate respondents in their search for organisational information, as their tenure with the organisation continued they were more apt to seek such assistance from colleagues, as indicated by the comments of Respondent 4. This appears also to support findings of Kram and Isabella (1983), that respondents gained this type of mentoring assistance from peers in addition to their mentors.

Graph Seven: Mentors/Supervisors as Savvy Insider



Graph Eight: Mentors/Supervisors as Role Model

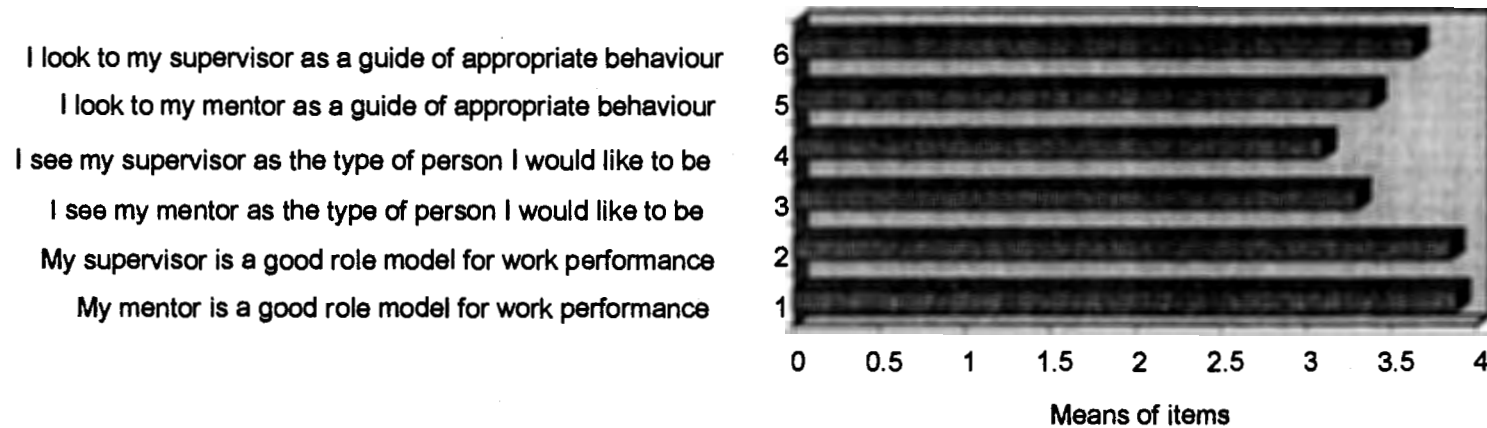


Table 17
Paired Samples Statistics: Savvy Insider

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
My supervisor gives me advice on how to achieve certain goals	3.4359	1.1118			
My mentor gives me advice on how to achieve certain goals	3.2179	1.2958	1.162	77	.249
My supervisor has helped me settle into the organisation	3.6026	1.0732			
My mentor has helped me settle into the organisation	2.9744	1.3578	-3.090	77	.003
My supervisor helps me understand appropriate ways of doing things	3.9103	.9284			
My mentor helps me understand appropriate ways of doing things	3.3333	1.4385	-2.916	77	.005

Table 18
Paired Samples Statistics: Role Model

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
I look to my supervisor as a guide of appropriate behaviour	3.6282	.9818			
I look to my mentor as a guide of appropriate behaviour	3.3846	1.2298	1.383	77	.171
I see my supervisor as the type of person I would like to be	3.0897	1.1071			
I see my mentor as the type of person I would like to be	3.2949	1.2072	1.278	77	.205
My supervisor is a good role model for work performance	3.8462	.8690			
My mentor is a good role model for work performance	3.8846	.9801	.286	77	.776

Respondent 9, whose mentor also worked in Organisation E, found that as a graduate recruit she was able to ask the same question of both the mentor and the supervisor, thus clarifying exactly what was expected of her.

Assistance from the mentor was also evident where the mentor was located in another organisation. The mentor provided advice about getting support from others for a project Respondent 13 had worked on, advice which the Respondent felt was particularly astute given the mentor's 18 years within Public Sector organisations, across many departments. Although the mentor was not in the respondent's organisation in this case, valuable advice concerning working within government departments was forthcoming. Given that the focus of this study was Public Sector organisations, the role of Savvy Insider may well be fulfilled by mentors both inside and outside organisations, as some operational similarities do exist between government departments.

Respondent 13 commented that the supervisor provided sound advice as Savvy Insider but "at the local level". Rather than covering organisation wide issues, the supervisor was helpful with negotiating at the unit level. On a similar level, Respondent 8 sought her supervisor's advice concerning work rotations which were more highly regarded than others. She considered this advice very valuable.

Respondents were split in their preference for either the mentor or supervisor to act as Savvy Insider. Responses to item 74 of the questionnaire *"My mentor, not my supervisor, is my preference for seeking organisational information from"*, indicate a mean response of 2.89. While this is a slight leaning towards the mentor as preferred Savvy Insider, the mean is quite close to 2.50, the middle of the possible range.

On the surface, preference for mentor provision of this function appears to contradict the questionnaire responses because the supervisor was seen to provide

greater assistance in this function than the mentor. There was, however, no significant difference between those items which focused on the achievement of organisational goals and thus investigated assistance at the organisational level. At the organisational level then, respondents were mixed in their preference for the mentor or the supervisor. Respondents rated the mentor higher in terms of wider organisational assistance than they had for assistance at the micro level of their work unit, such as “settling into the organisation” and “understanding ways of doing things”.

5.3.8 The function of Role Model

Three behavioural indicators have been used to measure the existence of the Role Model function in this study.

Respondents were asked to comment on whether their supervisor and mentor were good role models for work performance. Mentors were rated slightly higher than supervisors on these items (3.88 compared to 3.84), although this did not represent a significant difference ($t = 0.28$ and $p = 0.77$).

Similarly, mentors were rated higher than supervisors when respondents considered whether the mentor or supervisor was the type of person they would like to be (3.29 compared to 3.08), although again these results were not significantly different ($t = 1.27$ and $p = 0.20$).

On the other hand, respondents felt that the supervisor provided a better guide to appropriate organisational behaviour than the mentor (3.62 compared to 3.38). This difference was not significant ($t = 1.38$ and $p = 0.17$). These results are included in Graph 8 and Table 18.

It appears from the comments of interviewees that the extent to which mentors were perceived by respondents to fulfill the function of Role Model was

determined to a large extent by the level of choice respondents were given in the selection of their mentor. For many respondents whose mentor was selected for them by the organisation, the consideration of Role Model characteristics in their mentor was not generally evident. Table 10 indicated that respondents in only two of the eight researched organisations were able to select their own mentor. Thus, on the basis of these comments made by respondents, the function of Role Model may not be expected to be significantly represented in the results.

Despite this, certain Role Model aspects did become apparent as respondents relationships with their mentor and supervisor developed. Indeed Respondent 12 “knew what she was looking for” and realised that she had chosen as her mentor “the type of person which she might like to become”. Specifically, the way that her mentor had developed her career was something the respondent would like to emulate. She also “appreciated that (her mentor) had found a comfortable way to act in terms of being a woman in management”. That respondent indicated that Role Model aspects were a key consideration in her selection of her mentor.

Similarly, Respondents 13 and 15 had chosen their mentors after consideration of Role Model elements. Respondent 13 chose largely from the management profiles of mentors which were distributed to her prior to the program beginning and Respondent 15 chose on the basis of Role Model characteristics such as the way her mentor handled herself with others and her communication skills. The importance of Role Model characteristics in the latter relationship has increased with time, as the respondent has interacted with the mentor both in the office and in real work situations.

Similarly, Respondent 17 identified a strong element of the Role Model function in her mentor, believing that both she and the mentor shared similar ambitions inside their organisation. Thus, she was keen to emulate the drive which she believed her mentor possessed.

Other Respondents were not focused on Role Model characteristics when choosing their mentor. Respondent 14 “wasn’t consciously looking for qualities” but “wanted to learn specific skills”, having identified her mentor as possessing those skills. Respondent 12 had not seen her mentor “in action” so did not see him as a Role Model figure. Respondent 2 made similar comments, indicating that this would prevent Role Model aspects from developing. Respondent 4 did not see his mentor as a Role Model because “the mentor was not the sort of person (he) would like to be at that age”, although he was keen to learn from the mentor’s technical and organisational knowledge, an element illustrative of the Coach function.

Many respondents were able to explain clearly the extent to which they had identified Role Model aspects in their supervisor. This appeared to be largely a personal observation, commenting on whether their supervisor was the kind of person they would like to be. Few respondents indicated that they had considered Role Model aspects in their supervisor. This may be understandable given their lack of choice in working with their supervisor.

While Respondent 13 indicated that a Role Model was not something she looked for in her supervisor, she feels that she “constantly feeds off” the supervisor, perhaps imitating certain work behaviours. In a similar way, Respondent 12 feels that because she has worked for a very long time with her supervisor, there are certain things she unconsciously imitates. Other respondents identified characteristics of their supervisor that they admired. These included enthusiasm, the ability to get things done and the ability to talk and listen. Respondent 7 identified these as characteristics he would like to emulate.

Conversely Respondent 14 saw her supervisor’s personality as “dogmatic” and in direct contrast to herself, while Respondent 15 disliked the way that her supervisor “handled things”. These comments illustrate an awareness of the supervisor’s characteristics. On another level, Respondent 14 indicated that she had “paid

greater attention to the development of the relationship (with her supervisor) than to Role Model characteristics.

Such comments illustrate the role of personal feelings in the fulfillment of the Role Model function by both mentors and supervisors. Clearly, whether or not the Role Model function was fulfilled appeared to depend on the personality of each person, as perceived by the respondent. In the case of the mentor, it also seemed to depend on whether the respondent had been able to select the mentor themselves or whether the mentor had been selected for them. Where respondents had selected their own mentor, many had considered role model aspects when making their choice.

These findings support Murray (1991) who comments that the provision of the Role Model function is dependent upon the existence of respect, admiration and trust, elements which interview respondents spoke of when discussing role model aspects of their mentor and supervisor. This is interesting in the light of the comments by Levinson (1979), raised in section 2.8, that the teaching of role modeling should form a significant part of management development. Given the comments by Murray (1991) and the findings of this study, perhaps role modeling is an innate element to the relationship and thus can not be taught, suggesting that it may either exist or not exist between the two parties.

As the provision of the Role Model function by mentors and supervisors was balanced, so were respondent's preferences. Item 88, *"My mentor, not my supervisor, is my preferred role model"*, attracted a mean rating of 2.96 which leans slightly towards a preference for the mentor to provide this function.

5.3.9 The function of Counselor

The function of Counselor was measured in this study by three behavioural indicators. While the function of Mediator focused on work-related relationship

problems, this function focused on the assistance provided by supervisors and mentors to aspects of the respondent's personal life.

Respondents felt that mentors provided help and advice with aspects of their personal life to a greater extent than supervisors (2.03 compared to 1.97), although this difference was not deemed to be significant ($t = 0.37$ and $p = 0.71$). The relatively low mean which resulted for both items indicated that this element of the function was not substantially provided by either party.

Respondents were also asked if they would tell their mentor and supervisor things that they would not tell others members of their organisation. Respondents indicated that they share such things with supervisors to a greater extent than mentors (2.65 compared to 2.44) but once again, this did not represent a significant difference ($t = 0.98$ and $p = 0.32$).

A significant difference was found in the level of support offered by mentors and supervisors in discussing respondent's concerns about their job. Supervisors were the preferred audience (4.12 compared to mentors 3.71), representing a significant difference ($t = 2.53$ and $p = 0.01$). These relatively high results indicate that substantial assistance was provided in this area. These results are outlined in Graph 9 and Table 19.

Clearly, from the results, respondents were comfortable discussing their concerns with both supervisors and mentors. Respondents indicated through interviews that, in some instances, the supervisor was the obvious person to help. Indeed Respondent 9 had encountered a personal family matter which clashed with work commitments. She felt completely comfortable in approaching her supervisor who "was the only person who could solve that particular problem and who went out of his way to do so". Respondent 14 found a two-way exchange between herself and her supervisor which meant that both sought the other's help in personal matters.

In a similar vein to the mentor as Mediator, Respondent 9 found that the mentor was “someone who could give them a different perspective, to talk to if they did not want to talk to someone in their unit”. She was grateful for the confidentiality associated with discussions with her mentor. However, Respondent 10 found it difficult to talk with the mentor initially because they “did not have a feel for each other”.

The use of the mentor or the supervisor as Counselor appeared to be based largely on personal choice, depending to a great extent on the quality of the relationship that the respondent has with both parties. Reflecting this, the respondent's preference for either the mentor or supervisor to fulfill this role appeared inconclusive. Item 83 of the questionnaire, “*I prefer to share confidential feelings and emotions with my mentor, not my supervisor*”, was rated by respondents at a mean of 2.64. This shows only a very slight leaning toward the mentor.

5.3.10 The function of Friend

The function of Friend was measured in this study by three behavioural indicators. These indicators focused on the level of interaction which the respondent experienced with both their mentor or supervisor outside of the work situation.

Results indicated that respondents invited their supervisor to social gatherings to a greater extent than they did their mentor (2.50 compared to 1.82), a difference seen as highly significant ($t = 4.23$ and $p = 0.00$).

Similarly, respondents attended social gatherings with their supervisor to a greater extent than with their mentor (2.55 compared to 1.78). This, again, was a highly significant difference ($t = 4.23$ and $p = 0.00$).

Following this theme, respondents appeared to interact socially in one-on-one situations with their supervisor to a greater extent than with their mentor (3.01

compared to 2.43), a difference that was highly significant ($t = 3.39$ and $p = 0.00$). These results are presented in Graph 10 and Table 20.

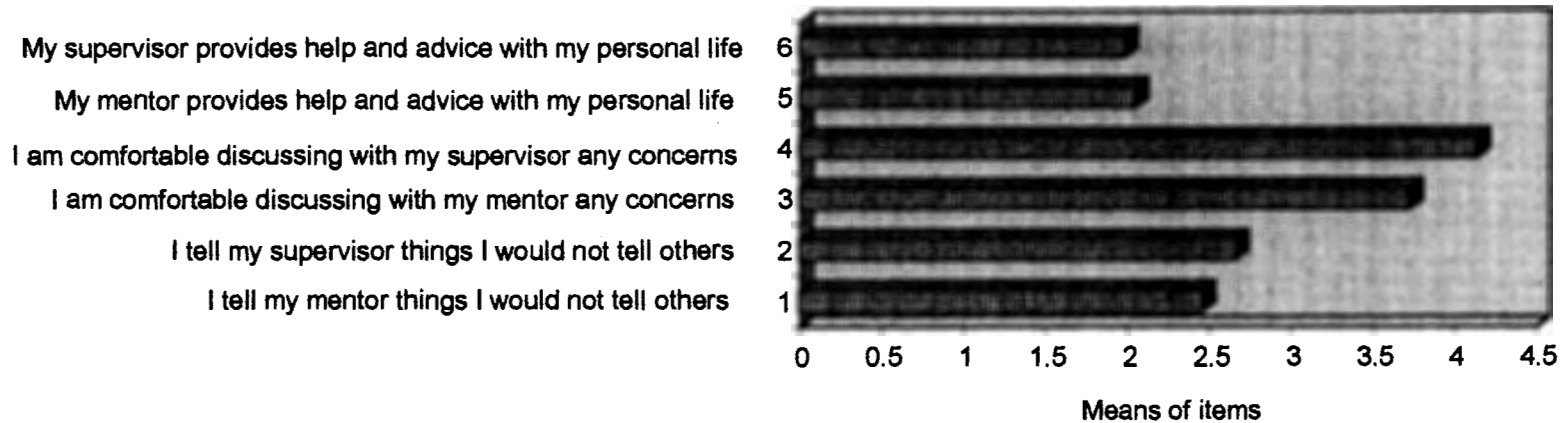
Many respondents felt that friendship was not the objective of their mentoring relationship, while at the same time indicating that friendships developed and social interaction often occurred with supervisors as a natural element of collegiality. This may explain to some extent why respondents rated mentors lower than supervisors with respect to the function of Friend.

Specifically, Respondent 10 explained that while there was no friendship element to her mentoring relationship, she felt a need to meet regularly enough to make the relationship work, qualifying that "this was not regular enough to develop a friendship in the normal sense". Respondent 9 noted that she had common interests with her mentor, but that these were limited to points of discussion and were not the basis of a friendship, while Respondent 12 "did not pursue a friendship over and above the one that naturally formed". Indeed, the decision regarding a friendship was not discussed with the mentor but "was a quiet understanding". She elaborated that she enjoyed an element of friendship in all working relationships.

Conversely, Respondent 13 expected a friendship to naturally develop but feels that "this has been resisted by (the mentor) who preferred to maintain professional distance". She felt that some friendship element is necessary "in order to open up communication".

Clearly, many respondents enjoyed a professional level of distance between themselves and their mentor. Indeed, while Respondent 15 would call her mentor a friend, she clarifies that she would maintain the relationship "at a level which extends to professional distance". Respondents 13 and 14 had a similar view. While maintaining a friendly disposition, they opted for a "business-type relationship".

Graph Nine: Mentors/Supervisors as Counselor



Graph Ten: Mentors/Supervisors as Friend

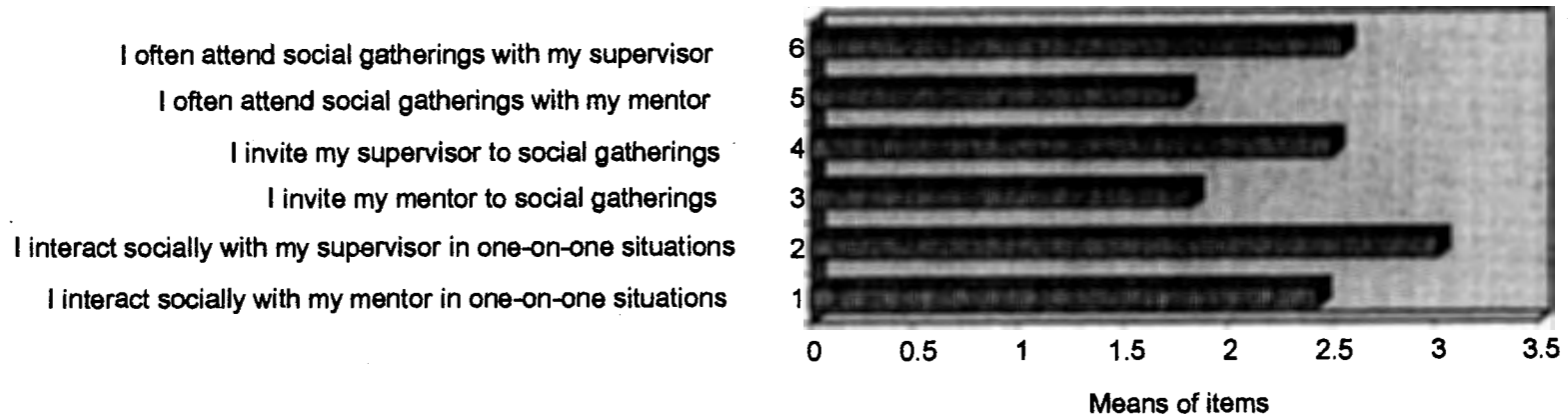


Table 19
Paired Samples Statistics: Counselor

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
My supervisor provides help and advice with my personal life	1.9744	1.1507			
My mentor provides help and advice with my personal life	2.0385	1.2215	.374	77	.710
I am comfortable discussing with my supervisor any concerns	4.1282	.8583			
I am comfortable discussing with my mentor any concerns	3.7179	1.1941	2.538	77	.013
I tell my supervisor things I would not tell others	2.6538	1.1824			
I tell my mentor things I would not tell others	2.4487	1.2858	.988	77	.326

Table 20
Paired Samples Statistics: Friend

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
I often attend social gatherings with my supervisor	2.5513	1.2130			
I often attend social gatherings with my mentor	1.7821	.9349	4.745	77	.000
I invite my supervisor to social gatherings	2.5000	1.2562			
I invite my mentor to social gatherings	1.8205	.9080	4.230	77	.000
I interact socially with my supervisor in one-on-one situations	3.0128	1.3240			
I interact socially with my mentor in one-on-one situations	2.4359	1.3347	3.399	77	.001

Respondent's comments were reflected in the responses to questionnaire item 97, *"I prefer to socialise with my supervisor rather than my mentor"*. Respondents indicated a slight leaning toward the supervisor, suggested by a mean rating of 2.94, although the low mean across the total items related to this function suggests that this was not a function considered imperative to mentoring relationships.

5.3.11 The Total Picture

In order to gain a picture of the differences between supervisor and mentor provision of the functions integral to this study, the individual items (indicators) for each function were added. For example, the items which related to the mentor as Evaluator were totaled and compared with the totaled items related to the supervisor as Evaluator, as explained in section 3.6.2. Thus, because the items were totaled for each function, the means used in calculating the existence of a significant difference were larger than the means calculated for individual items.

5.3.11.1 Career-related Functions

An examination of the totaled data for Career-related functions in this study reveals that significant differences were found in the extent to which mentors and supervisors provided mentoring functions to respondents. In the case of four of the five functions, supervisors provided greater mentoring benefit than mentors. With regard to the remaining function, Career Counselor, no significant difference was found in the mentor's or supervisor's provision of that function. These results are presented in Graph 11.

Examining the function of Evaluator initially, results indicated that the supervisor provided this function to a greater extent than the mentor (14.58 compared to 9.84) which represented a highly significant difference ($t = -9.36$ and $p = 0.00$).

Similarly, a highly significant difference ($t = -9.10$ and $p = 0.00$) was found in the provision of the Coach function. Supervisors were rated higher than mentors (19.38 compared to 12.53).

With regard to the function of Advocate, respondents also felt that their supervisor had provided this to a greater extent than their mentor (10.21 compared to 7.53). This also represented a highly significant difference ($t = -6.62$ and $p = 0.00$).

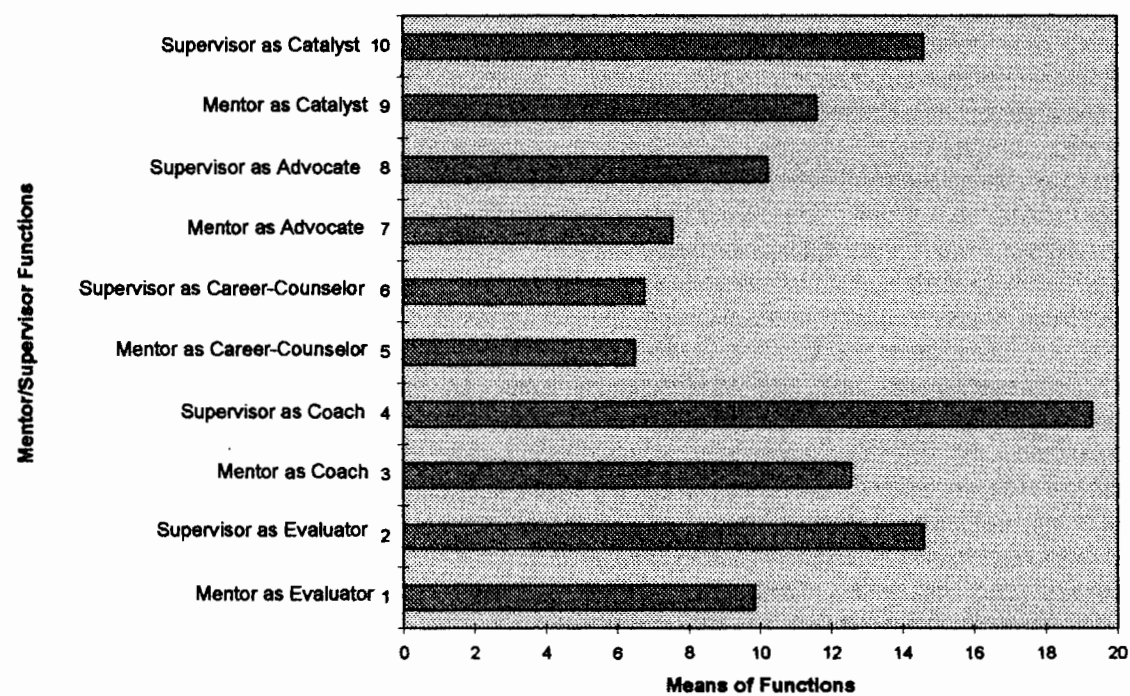
The same is true of the function of Catalyst, where supervisors were rated higher than mentors (14.57 compared to 11.58), again a highly significant difference ($t = -4.79$ and $p = 0.00$).

As mentioned, in the eyes of respondents the function of Career Counselor was provided for by supervisors only slightly more than by mentors (6.75 compared to 6.48). As may be intimated by the means calculated, this did not represent a significant difference ($t = .78$ and $p = 0.43$). Results relating to all career-related functions are presented in Graph 11 and Table 21.

Although it is clear from interview comments that each individual respondent had gained greater assistance in each function from either their mentor or their supervisor, these grouped results enable consideration of the hypotheses which form the basis of this study. Generally, these results support hypothesis one, that supervisors would be perceived by respondents to provide greater career-related mentoring assistance than mentors. Hypothesis one is supported in four of the five functions which related to career-related mentoring assistance in this study, that is, Evaluator, Coach, Advocate and Catalyst. It is clear that, with regard to the fifth function, that of Career-counselor, both mentors and supervisors have been almost equally beneficial in the assistance that they have provided to respondents but that the level of assistance is far lower than that provided in other career-related functions.

Hypothesis one is also supported by the preferences respondents have for mentoring assistance. With regard to career related functions, respondents preferred their supervisor to provide four of the five functions. Only with respect to the function of Career-counselor was the mentor the preferred source of assistance.

Graph 11
Mentor / Supervisor Differences in Career-Related Functions

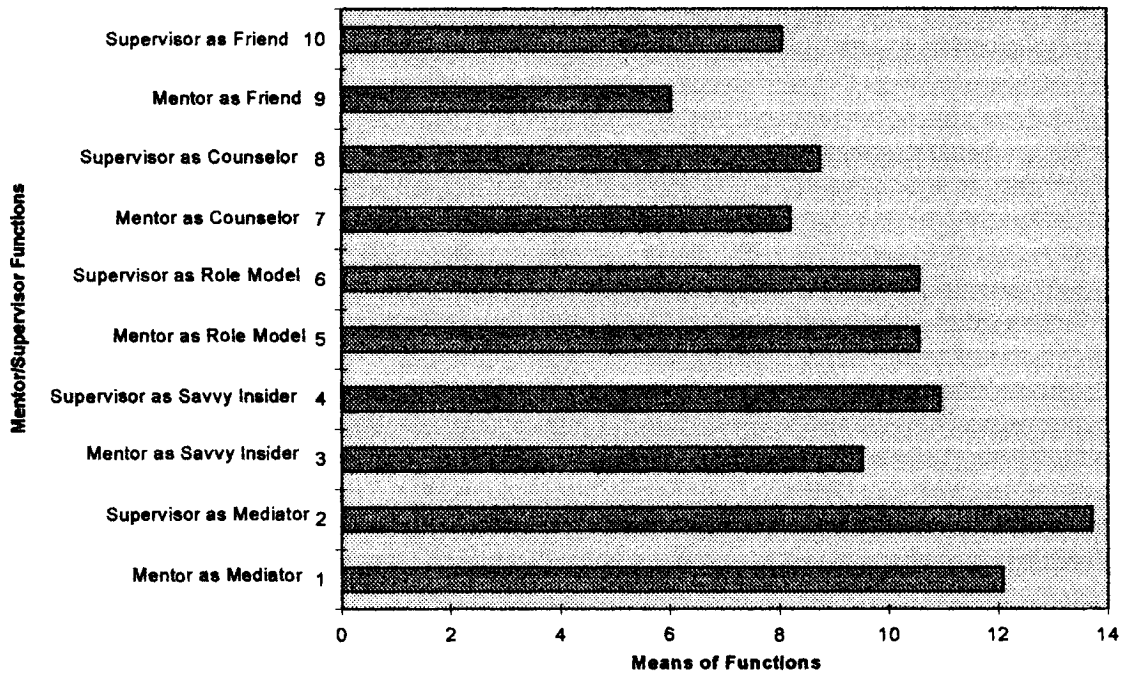


5.3.11.2 Psychosocial functions

An examination of the results which relate to psychosocial functions indicates that a significant difference is evident in the extent to which supervisors and mentors provide three of these functions. Differences in the provision of the other two functions is not significant.

Graph 12

Mentor/Supervisor Psychosocial Functions



With regard to the function of Mediator, respondents felt that the supervisor provided greater assistance than the mentor (13.70 compared to 12.08). This difference is seen as highly significant ($t = -2.82$ and $p = 0.00$).

A highly significant difference was also found in the provision of the function Savvy Insider ($t = -2.88$ and $p = 0.00$). Once again, respondents felt that the supervisor provided assistance to a greater extent (10.94 compared to the mentor 9.52).

Similarly, the function of Friend was perceived by respondents to have been provided for to a greater extent by supervisors than mentors (8.06 compared to 6.03). Results indicate that this difference was highly significant ($t = -4.95$ and $p = 0.00$).

Table 21
Differences in Career - Related Functions

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig.
Mentor as Evaluator	9.8462	3.8073			
Supervisor as Evaluator	14.5897	2.8805	-9.365	77	.000
Mentor as Coach	12.5385	4.9167			
Supervisor as Coach	19.2821	3.6641	-9.102	77	.000
Mentor as Career Counselor	6.4872	2.4954			
Supervisor as Career Counselor	6.7564	1.8247	-.781	77	.437
Mentor as Advocate	7.5385	2.9396			
Supervisor as Advocate	10.2179	2.8084	-6.623	77	.000
Mentor as Catalyst	11.5897	4.2987			
Supervisor as Catalyst	14.5769	3.3206	-4.799	77	.000

Table 22
Differences in Psychosocial Functions

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig.
Mentor as Mediator	12.0897	4.4552			
Supervisor as Mediator	13.7051	3.4230	-2.829	77	.006
Mentor as Savvy Insider	9.5256	3.4668			
Supervisor as Savvy Insider	10.9487	2.4436	-2.889	77	.005
Mentor as Role Model	10.5641	2.8676			
Supervisor as Role Model	10.5641	2.2883	.000	77	1.000
Mentor as Counselor	8.2051	2.9907			
Supervisor as Counselor	8.7564	2.4077	-1.271	77	.207
Mentor as Friend	6.0385	2.6455			
Supervisor as Friend	8.0641	3.1637	-4.935	77	.000

As mentioned, significant differences in the level of assistance provided by supervisors and mentors were not found in an examination of the other two psychosocial functions. With regard to the function of Role Model, respondents indicated that both mentors and supervisors provided assistance to equaling degrees (10.56 for both supervisors and mentors. Obviously, no significant difference was found between these means ($t = 0.00$ and $p = 1.00$).

Respondents felt that supervisors provided greater assistance in Counseling than mentors did (8.75 compared to 8.20) but these means were not significantly different ($t = -1.27$ and $p = 0.20$), as indicated in Graph 12 and Table 22.

These results indicate that hypothesis two was not supported in this study. Hypothesis two stated that mentors would be perceived by respondents to have provided greater psychosocial mentoring assistance than supervisors. This was clearly not the case when we consider the results which relate to functions of Mediator, Savvy Insider, Counselor and Friend. Although the Hypothesis was not supported in terms of the function of Role Model, it is clear that the role played by both supervisors and mentors with regard to this function is of an almost equal extent.

It is interesting to note that respondent's preferences for the provision of psychosocial functions focused on mentors for three of the five functions. It may be the case that mentors had the potential to provide greater mentoring benefit in this area but that other factors may have prevented this. This issue is discussed further in section 5.5.

There may be some reasons why mentors did not provide assistance to the degree that they were expected to. Respondent 10 felt that within her organisation's mentoring program, there was little communication between mentors. Thus, through a lack of collegial discussion, mentors may have not developed a full

understanding of what being a mentor involves. Mentoring may have been difficult for some, as Respondent 9 felt that her mentor had to mentally step out of his normal managerial role in order to act as mentor to her. Mentors may not have been used because, as Respondent 16 pointed out, “the majority of issues that come up are there and then issues”, indicating that the supervisor’s convenience determines that he, or indeed another colleague, will be approached for assistance rather than the mentor.

In assessing the roles of either the mentor or supervisor, Respondent 12 felt that each of the functions were interrelated, making it difficult to assess each function. This is consistent with Assumption Three of this study, highlighting why career-related and psychosocial functions are grouped together in the full analysis.

However, Respondent 3 felt that there was very little overlap between what the supervisor and what the mentor provide, noticing this as he filled out the questionnaire. He felt that “the supervisor was there for technical knowledge and the mentor for everything else....any overlap would depend on the issue and its nature....there is a definite dividing line and in 99% of cases there is no doubt who (he) would see for assistance”. This was despite the fact that his organisation had expressed clearly what they felt the roles of mentor and supervisor were.

These results show very little evidence of Classical Mentoring, as outlined by Kram (1985) and explained in section 2.7. Classical Mentoring, a relationship in which all mentoring functions are provided, was not found in this study with respect to either mentors or supervisors, thus supporting the findings of Kram (1983b) and Noe (1988) and the essence of Assumption One in section 2.10. Although some characteristics of the classical relationship were evident, such as long duration and exclusivity, perhaps barriers, like those discussed later in section 5.5, may have prevented the development of classical relationships with respect to either supervisors or mentors.

Thus, this study supports Merriam (1993), that classical mentoring may be rare in the business sense and may depend on the way the mentoring relationship is defined. Following this tack, it is possible that the findings of this study may have been influenced by the underlying beliefs of the mentoring programs within each organisation. For example, many of the respondents indicated that they had considered what their mentor may provide for them in terms of career advice as this had been discussed in the context of the program, while none had considered the mentor's potential role as Advocate, a function not discussed.

The mentoring relationships evident in this study may more closely mirror secondary mentoring, or career mentoring, suggested by Whitely and Coetsier (1993) and Phillips-Jones (1982), as detailed in section 2.7. As was the case to some extent in this study, mentoring functions are provided by many sources in a relationship dubbed career mentoring. This was particularly evident in organisations which operated unit style work structures, such that those functions not provided by the mentor or supervisor were provided by peers and work colleagues. The notion of career mentoring was also strongly evident in the comments of Respondent 3 who felt that there was a "definite dividing line and no doubt who (he) would see for assistance" with regard to both the supervisor and mentor. This supported the notion of Kram (1983b), outlined in section 2.7, that the delivery of mentoring functions was not always embodied in the mentor and may be the role of other organisational members close to the respondent.

Many respondents explained in interviews that they had not used their mentor for some mentoring functions as the mentor was located outside their organisation. In such cases, in order to fulfill their needs with respect to some functions, respondents gained assistance from others within their own organisation. These findings appear to be consistent with the suggestions of Kram and Isabella (1985) who believe that respondents may revert to supervisors to fill some functions in the absence of the mentor.

Furthermore, the results of this study indicate that respondents turned to the supervisor for mentoring functions even where the mentor may have been available to provide them. Issues of immediacy, such as the instances described by respondents in their quest for on-the-spot counseling support, often meant that the supervisor provided certain mentoring functions.

Thus, the concept of Supervisory Career Mentoring developed by Kram (1985), Scandura (1992) and Scandura and Schriesham (1994), focusing on the greater developmental support provided by supervisors than non-supervisory mentors, was supported by the findings of this study. Although the findings of the Scandura and Schriesham (1994) study centred on salary and promotion levels of protégés, as outlined in section 2.8, and this study delineated between career-related and psychosocial mentoring functions, consistency was evident in that supervisors provided greater support than mentors in the context of leader-member exchange relationships in both studies.

The results of this study are also consistent with Burke, McKeen and McKenna (1993) who found that supervisory mentors offered greater mentoring benefits than non-supervisory mentors, as outlined in section 2.8. While that study examined the provision of mentoring functions through the perception of mentors while focused on mentors as either supervisory or non-supervisory, the focus of this study on subordinate's perceptions uncovered similar findings.

The view of supervisors as mentoring figures espoused by Scandura and Schriesham (1994) and outlined in section 2.8, was supported in this study by the supervisor's tendency to provide mentoring functions as perceived by the respondent. The supervisor's organisational commitment in the respondent was evident through their provision of mentoring functions and, as these functions may equate with transformational leadership, these results may be indicative of a link between transformational leadership and mentoring, as suggested by Scandura

and Schriesham (1994). Thus, the findings of this study lend some support to the link proposed by Scandura and Schriesham (1994).

It was hypothesised in this study that mentors would provide greater psychosocial mentoring functions than supervisors. This was clearly not the case. There are several possible reasons why psychosocial functions were provided to a greater extent by supervisors than mentors.

The interpersonal bond between mentor and respondent which facilitates the effectiveness of psychosocial functions, as outlined by Kram (1983a) and Murray (1991) and explained in section 2.9, may not have been developed by the respondents and mentors in this study. This is because such bonds take some time to develop, to the extent that the relatively low levels of interaction between respondents and mentors in this study may have prevented such development.

Thus the bond of mutual trust and intimacy discussed by Kram (1983, in Aryee, et al. 1996) may not be developed to such an extent as to ensure the provision of functions like Role Model, Mediator, Counselor and certainly Friend, functions that require a relatively high level of trust and intimacy.

Additionally, these functions were regarded as informal by Noe (1988) and others, as explained in section 2.6. As the mentoring relationships in this study were formally established by organisations and their members, such informal mentoring functions may not have been able to be provided, hindered to some extent by the formal processes which existed. Issues such as these are investigated further in section 5.5.

While the supervisors in this study held an authoritative position over the respondents, the unit structure of work in many of the organisations studied meant that teamwork was a greater emphasis than supervision. Although authority did

exist, the notion of authority undermining the provision of mentoring functions, as suggested by Mumford (1992) and Olian et al. (1988) was perhaps countered by the elements of teamwork which existed.

5.4 Relationship characteristics and the provision of mentoring functions

In this section of the study three relationship factors were analysed against the provision of mentoring functions by both mentors and supervisors, as perceived by the respondent. These factors were; age difference, demographic proximity and interaction level. As described in section 3.6, correlational coefficients were calculated to describe the extent of the relationships between each of these characteristics and the provision of mentoring functions by both supervisors and mentors.

With regard to age differences, correlational relationships described as positive would indicate that as the age difference between the respondent and either their mentor or supervisor increased, so would the provision of mentoring benefits. In terms of demographic proximity and levels of interaction, a negative correlational relationship would show that the closer the two parties worked together or the higher the level of interaction, the greater the provision of mentoring benefits.

Correlational results indicate that relationships existed to a significant extent between age difference, demographic proximity and interaction levels and the provision of some of the mentoring functions by the mentor. There is very little evidence of a relationship between any of these relationship characteristics and the provision of mentoring functions by supervisors.

Table 24
Supervisor– Respondent Correlations to Functions
(Age Difference, Demographic Proximity and Interaction Levels)

[illegible]

5.4.1 Age difference

With respect to relationships between respondents and mentors, results show evidence of a relationship between age difference and both the Evaluator and the Mediator functions. Negative correlation coefficients of $r = -.398$ for the Evaluator function and $r = -.371$ for the Mediator function indicate that the smaller the age difference between the respondent and their mentor, the greater the provision of these mentoring functions.

Additionally, relationships of some significance were found between the age difference of the mentor and the respondent and both the Coach and Advocate functions. The correlation between age difference and the Coach function was shown to be $r = -.326$, while for the Advocate function a relationship of $r = -.311$ was evident. These results indicate that the smaller the age difference between the respondent and their mentor, the greater the mentor's provision of these functions. These results are presented in Table 23.

No relationships of significance were found between the age difference of the respondent and the supervisor and the provision of mentoring functions, as presented in Table 24.

5.4.2 Demographic proximity

Relationships of significance were found between the demographic proximity of the respondent and their mentor and the provision of the majority of the ten mentoring functions. Correlation coefficients of $r = -.528$ for the mentor as Coach, $r = -.518$ for Evaluator, $r = -.503$ for Friend, $r = -.494$ for the mentor as Mediator and $r = -.480$ for Advocate indicated that the closer the proximity of the respondent to their mentor, the greater the provision of these mentoring functions.

Significant relationships were also found between the demographic proximity of the respondent and their mentor and the provision of the Savvy Insider ($r = -.387$),

Catalyst ($r = -.380$) and the Counselor ($r = -.304$) functions. Relationships were not significant with respect to the functions of Role Model and Career Counselor. These results are included in Table 23.

However, with regard to supervisors, results indicated that no significant relationships existed between the demographic proximity of the respondent and their supervisor and the provision of mentoring functions. Results related to supervisor/respondent relationships are presented in Table 24.

Interviewees have indicated that the demographic proximity of the respondent and the mentor influences the provision of mentoring functions in several ways. Commenting on the significant geographical distance between himself and his mentor, Respondent 11 felt that day-to-day interaction was almost impossible and that, "When you are new to the organisation and interacting with people on a daily basis, those are the people you will turn to rather than someone who you see less frequently". Clearly the great distance between himself and his mentor lead Respondent 11 to seek mentoring assistance not from his mentor but from other colleagues.

The level of demographic proximity may determine the mentor's knowledge of the respondent's content of work and so affect the mentor's ability to assist the respondent. The extent of evaluation by the mentor appeared to be influenced by the mentor's location. Respondent 5 felt that the mentor was not in an appropriate position to evaluate, was "not on the spot and when (I) do see him it is for short sessions to discuss specific issues, not general performance". Similarly, Respondent 7 felt that a mentor who was closer to the respondent's work would be familiar with it and so be able to act as Evaluator and Coach. These findings are similar to those discussed in section 5.3.1 and 5.3.2.

With regard to the mentor as Advocate, Respondent 17, whose mentor was located on the same work-site, felt that because her mentor worked within such close proximity, the mentor was able to "see other abilities she had and comment on these to other members of the organisation". Similarly, Respondent 15 indicated that her mentor was aware of her work and through that, had recommended her to work on a committee and also to serve on the evaluation committee of the organisation's mentoring program, thus providing the respondent with wider exposure to more senior colleagues. Respondent 15 believes that this only came to fruition because of the mentor's close association with the respondent stemming from the close proximity in which they worked.

Other respondents experienced greater geographic distance between themselves and their mentor which impacted on the mentor's role as Advocate. Respondent 14 felt that her mentor had probably not advocated for her as he worked in another Public Sector organisation and was not familiar with her work to the extent of commenting to others about it. Respondent 12, whose mentor also worked in another organisation, felt that her mentor had fulfilled more of a networking role than that of Advocate. The Respondent felt that this was because the mentor was in a position to develop the respondent's network but not to advocate for her.

With regard to the mentor as Mediator, some contradiction with the results is apparent when we consider that several respondents indicated that they chose the mentor to act as Mediator because of the mentor's isolation from the immediate problem. This contradicts with comments made by other respondents who felt that they had chosen the supervisor as Mediator because of their immediate and convenient location. This apparent contradiction may be explained to some extent by the notion that the seriousness of the problem determined for some respondents where they actually sought assistance from. That is, the greater the seriousness of the problem meant that the mentor was sought out for assistance, the lesser the seriousness then they would go to the supervisor. This paradox may also be

explained when we consider that all mentors did not work directly with the respondent and thus were effectively removed from the problem regardless of their demographic proximity to the respondent.

Respondent 13 felt that if the mentor had been in the same unit and in closer proximity she would have sought far greater Coaching assistance from him. Indeed Respondent 8 commented that at the time of the interview his mentor was located within the same building and not elsewhere as he had been previously. This meant that with issues that had arisen recently he tended to utilise his mentor when on previous occasions he had sought advice from others.

As was explained earlier, respondents within Organisations F and G were matched with mentors external to their organisation, while many respondents in other organisations utilised mentors who were located at other work-sites. Indeed only half of the respondents in this study (52.6%) had mentors who were located in the same building (Table 4). This indicates that for many of the respondents their mentor was not in a convenient location for them. In contrast, results indicated that 91% of respondent's supervisors were located in the same building (Table 5).

Based on these differences it may be fair to assume that the range of mentor locations was much greater than that of supervisor's locations in this study, given that supervisors were generally located at close hand to the respondent and mentors were located as diversely as other cities and towns in the same state. Given this possible range, the scope for demographic proximity factors to influence the provision of mentoring functions may be greater with regard to mentors than with supervisors. This is reflected in the results of this study.

Turban and Jones (1993) found that the higher the degree of demographic proximity, the higher the rating of the subordinate's performance, as explained in section 2.9. The results in this study neither confirm or deny a relationship

between the demographic proximity of the supervisor and the provision of mentoring functions to the respondent. There was, of course, some support for the findings of Turban and Jones with regard to the demographic proximity of the mentor and the respondent.

5.4.3 Levels of interaction

Relationships of significance were found between the interaction levels of mentors and respondents and the provision of several mentoring functions. The relationship between interaction levels and the mentor as Coach was significant ($r = -.448$), as were relationships between that characteristic and the functions of Evaluator ($r = -.414$), Mediator ($r = -.385$) and Catalyst ($r = -.336$). These results indicate that as the level of interaction increases between the mentor and respondent, greater assistance is provided in those mentoring functions. These results are presented in Table 23.

These results may be explained to some extent by respondent's comments. Some respondents (14) indicated that they had chosen their mentor to fill specific purposes, thus the respondent's interaction with the mentor was for a specific purpose and not so much ad hoc which could lead to the provision of many functions. For example, Respondent 14 utilised the mentor for specific evaluation and coaching functions only which immediately deemed other functions not to be provided. This meant that every interaction between that respondent and her mentor lead to assistance within the realm of the Evaluator function.

Several respondents (2, 4 and 8) indicated that the more they met with their mentor the greater understanding the mentor had of their work. This meant that the mentor was, through greater interaction, able to comment on aspects of the respondent's work, whether in the role of Evaluator or any other functions related to levels of interaction.

Mentors were also able to follow-up on issues discussed through the mentor's role as Mediator, perhaps leading to that function being better provided by the mentor. Remembering the comments of some respondents that mentors felt that their skills and knowledge may not have been useful to the respondent, the greater interaction between both parties leading to the mentor's better knowledge of the respondent's work content and context may lead to the mentor having a better idea of their potential contribution in providing mentoring benefits. Respondent 2 commented that "as the mentor saw (my) work more regularly he had a better idea of it and so he could see how his skills and knowledge could be helpful".

Often mentors and respondents established mentoring frameworks. This framework determined to a great extent which functions the respondent sought. Thus, there were many functions for which respondents did not seek assistance from the mentor. Results indicated that many respondents did not see the mentor as Evaluator because they deemed that to be outside the mentor's area of influence as he/she was not working in that work context (as indicated in section 5.3.1). Indeed, Respondent 13 indicated that "contact with the mentor was periodic and not specifically related to work content", thus making the provision of the functions of Coach or Evaluator impossible.

With regard to levels of interaction between respondent and supervisor, only one relationship was found to be of significance, that of the Career Counselor function ($r = -.312$). Results indicated that relationships between interaction levels and the other nine mentoring functions were less significant, as evidenced by correlational coefficient values where $r < .300$. These results are presented in Table 24.

The respondent's interaction with the supervisor was determined largely by the nature of the work, citing the difference in interaction between Respondent 17, who felt established in her job and only needed to see the supervisor occasionally for little assistance, compared with Respondents 5, 6, 7 and 8 who, as graduates,

required regular assistance from their supervisor. This reflects the notions associated with Situational Leadership Theory, specifically the effect of subordinate maturity on the seeking of assistance from supervisors and colleagues.

Where interaction was on a daily basis, the opportunity for informal or oral evaluation seemed to be taken up by many of the respondent's supervisors. However some respondents felt that this occurred only when solicited (Respondents 14 and 15).

Results indicated that the range of proximity and interaction with supervisors was not as extensive as with mentors. Clearly most respondents (90%) met with their supervisor at least daily (Table 7) so the lower range in levels of interaction may not impinge on the provision of mentoring functions. Conversely 80% of respondents met with their mentor less frequently than weekly (Table 6). This study assumes that a wide range of interaction levels would be evident with regard to those relationships represented by 80% of respondents. Indeed some of those respondents may meet with their mentor slightly less frequently than weekly, others may meet only every two months. Therefore, as was the case with demographic proximity, the scope for interaction levels to influence the provision of mentoring functions may be greater with regard to mentors than with supervisors. Again, this is reflected in the results obtained.

These results support to some extent the findings of Kram (1985) that greater interaction between mentor and respondent will lead to greater provision of mentoring functions. While Kram (1985) believes that the increased mentoring function is derived from a greater potency or intimacy in the mentoring relationship, this element has not been assessed in this study.

It is interesting to note that while interaction levels between respondents and supervisors were higher than those between respondents and mentors and that

supervisors generally provided greater mentoring functions for respondents, there was no correlation between supervisor/respondent interaction and the delivery of mentoring functions. Any potential relationship may have been influenced by the finding that the routine nature of the supervisory relationship lead respondents to utilise their supervisor for that mentoring assistance deemed to require immediacy. This was expressed by respondents in interviews. If this is true it would support the findings of Burgess (1995) which highlight the natural dependency and routine nature of the supervisory relationship and also the findings of Dansereau et al. (1975) which suggest that greater interaction leads to greater communication, as explained in section 2.9 Perhaps, as hypothesised by Burgess (1995), the routine nature of supervisory relationships examined in this study led to greater interaction and so, greater provision of mentoring functions.

The greater assistance provided by supervisors in the Mediator and Counselor functions, roles which require high levels of communication and intimacy, appear to support the findings discussed in section 2.9. Comments that higher levels of interaction lead to a better quality relationship (O'Neill, in Busch, 1985) and the inter-relation between interaction, intimacy and the provision of mentoring functions (Graen and Scandura, in Waldron, 1991) may be supported by the findings of this study.

5.5 Barriers to the provision of mentoring functions

Research question two investigated the existence of barriers to mentoring relationships. That is, factors which impinged on relationships which respondents maintained with both their mentor and their supervisor, preventing them from developing this relationship fully.

Identification of these barriers was achieved through the use of interview respondent's comments, that is, the qualitative data used to clarify hypotheses one and two.

While interview respondents were generally positive regarding the ability of both mentors and supervisors to provide mentoring functions, many barriers were identified. These barriers centered largely on constraints to interaction. While demographic proximity was determined by the mentoring arrangements adopted by each organisation, interaction levels seemed to be affected by time constraints, location, work constraints which often forced the cancellation of pre-arranged meetings, the reluctance of some respondents to contact their mentor because the onus of contact fell on them, the position of the mentor, the organisation's definition of the mentor and finally conflicts of interest.

Respondent 4 indicated that her main barrier to gaining mentoring benefits was time. Time was precious for interaction, an issue raised by Kiniki and Vecchio (1994) and discussed in section 2.3. It was often difficult to get away from her own job, as it was for the mentor, in order to interact. Respondent 7 felt that having to constantly work on project related work left little time to develop the mentoring relationship and so reap mentoring benefits. Respondent 5 indicated that as the time spent with her mentor was fortnightly and pre-arranged, the limited time for interaction determined that there was a need for an agenda to ensure that the meeting time wasn't wasted. As both parties were often pressed for time, the respondent felt that she often did not get full reward from her mentor.

Infrequency of interaction was reflected in the places of interaction. For example, respondents indicated that often interaction with mentors occurred over the phone, at the mentor's place of work or at a convenient meeting place such as a coffee shop. Such locations may indicate the will, if not the time, to interact.

While many were encouraged by their organisation to interact with their mentor, respondents believed that greater time could be provided by the organisation, within working hours, for them to interact with their mentor. Many believed that

the assistance provided to them by their mentor and/or supervisor would have been far greater had this been provided.

How organisations approached, established and maintained mentoring programs may have influenced the levels of mentoring interaction experienced by respondents in this study. In some cases respondents had suggestions made to them regarding the times they should meet with their mentor and for what duration. Some respondents were provided with times during work hours in order to meet with their mentor. Therefore the level of interaction was not purely decided by the respondent and their mentor. Thus the level of interaction between respondent and mentor may have been lower than may have been the case if respondents were involved in informal mentoring and dictated their own interaction times.

Respondent 1 felt that the way the mentor was defined by the organisation effectively pre-determined how the mentor would be used, limiting the scope of the mentor's ability to deliver on functions. Similarly, Respondent 14 felt that the way the mentor was introduced to him, presented as "someone to see if they had troubles", lead him to limit his interaction. This limited the scope of the mentor's usefulness in the respondent's eyes, with the result that the respondent didn't utilise his mentor to the full extent. Thus, barriers existed based on the definitions formed by the organisation.

Conversely, as supervisors were not recognised formally as mentors, their relationships with respondents were far more open to interpretation in most cases. As the mentoring definition is also open to interpretation, as discussed in section 2.7, supervisors in this study may have been able to provide assistance across a far wider sphere of influence than mentors were able to, purely on the basis of definition.

Throughout discussion with respondents it became apparent that many had not considered fully the areas in which the mentor may be able to provide assistance. Indeed as some functions were discussed, many respondents commented that they had not considered that the mentor could help with that function, even though other respondents had indicated the existence of that kind of assistance. However, while this may have been a barrier to some, Respondent 6 felt that because she did not discuss expectations with her mentor at the start of their relationship, there were no limits put on the relationship. Effectively “there was no boundary to their discussions, what they could or couldn’t talk about”. She did note however that she had not considered her mentor when she had previously sought assistance in some of the mentoring functions.

Many respondents commented that the onus fell on them to initiate contact with their mentor. This represented an impediment to the continuity of the relationship. Respondents who were graduate employees found this difficult, particularly where they were matched with a mentor who held a high position with the company. Respondent 13 felt that because she was a newcomer to the organisation and her mentor was a “high flier” it was difficult to muster the courage to contact him. Similarly, Respondent 16 felt that the position of the mentor in the organisation created a barrier to interaction, believing that “the mentor would have been much more use if they were in the same unit, as problems seem to be kept within the unit”.

Respondent 4 noted that confidentiality was an issue in terms of his interaction with his supervisor. Thus, findings associated with the impediments and costs of approaching the supervisor for assistance, as raised by Miller and Jablin (1991, in Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1993) and discussed in section 2.9, appear to be supported to some extent in this study.

5.6 Summary

Chapter Five has outlined the results of this study, discussing these in the light of previous research explained in chapter two. The final chapter, chapter six, summarises these findings and identifies several implications and recommendations for further study. These implications and recommendations are discussed in relation to not only the organisations which were researched in this study but also to mentoring programs in general and the issue of supervisory and non-supervisory mentoring.

Chapter Six **Implications and Recommendations for** **future research**

6.1 **Introduction**

This chapter identifies and outlines the implications raised by the results discussed in chapter five. These implications are derived from consideration of the body of research discussed in chapter two and the findings of the study. Additionally, in this chapter several recommendations are made for future research.

6.2 **Conclusion**

The results of this study indicate support for hypothesis one in that supervisors were seen to provide career-related mentoring functions to a greater extent than mentors. There was some support for hypothesis three, particularly with regard to the relationships between the demographic proximity of respondents and mentors and the provision of mentoring functions. Greater support was realised in the examination of the relationship between interaction levels of respondents and mentors and the provision of many of the ten mentoring functions.

Hypothesis two was not supported in this study. While the study anticipated greater mentor provision of psychosocial mentoring functions, supervisors appeared to perform the greater role in this area. Additionally, no support was found to link the demographic proximity and interaction levels of respondents and supervisors with the provision of mentoring functions by supervisors. Finally the results did not suggest a link between the age differences of respondents and either mentors or supervisors and the provision of mentoring functions.

The investigation into research question one and two uncovered several interesting results. It appears from the findings of research question one that few organisations have considered matching supervisors as mentors to their subordinates. With regard to research question two, respondents were forthright

in identifying several barriers which they considered to be influential to the relationship with either their mentor or supervisor.

6.3 Implications of the research

Several implications for businesses which establish and maintain mentoring programs are evident from this study. These implications are related to the research questions and hypotheses. In relation to results which indicated that supervisors provided greater provision of mentoring functions than mentors, implications focus on the way mentoring programs are designed and established, the inclusion of parties at various mentoring intervals, the assumptions and definitions which provide a foundation for mentoring in organisations and the recognition of peer colleagues and informal mentoring in the mentoring process.

Implications which relate to the significant relationships between the demographic proximity and interaction levels of mentors and respondents and the provision of mentoring functions, factors such as the attention given to interaction between parties and the management of organisational constraints in the design, establishment and maintenance of mentoring programs are relevant.

The findings of this study hold significant implications for the way that mentoring programs are established and defined by organisations. It is evident from the results that the role of mentors and supervisors within the organisation has some influence on the provision of mentoring functions for subordinates. If we are to identify organisational members as mentors, clearly we need to consider what assistance they would potentially provide to colleagues.

The importance of the definition applied to the mentor by the organisation was evident in the comments of several respondents who were adamant that their mentor seemed to only be there for certain types of assistance. While mentors may have provided adequate assistance in these areas, this rendered ineffective the

mentor's potential worth with regard to the provision of other mentoring functions. While it has been assumed in this study that not all mentors will provide the full range of mentoring functions, as discussed in section 2.10 (Assumption One), it appears limiting to define the mentor to the extent that they are potentially helpful in only a subset of the mentoring functions. Thus, organisations may well be advised to acknowledge the open-ended nature of mentoring relationships, that is, recognise that mentors are able to provide a myriad of assistance, rather than limiting the relationship with specific statements about what mentors will or will not do.

In relation to this, respondents in this study had clear preferences for either their mentor or supervisor to fulfill specific mentoring functions. However, while collectively respondents preferred the supervisor to act as Advocate for example, several individual respondents wished their mentor to act as Advocate. Thus it may be difficult, or indeed impractical, for organisations to stipulate what mentoring functions mentors and supervisors will provide for subordinates given subordinate's varied preferences with regard to this assistance.

While organisations may recognise the potential worth of mentors in providing mentoring functions, the findings of this study, which highlight the mentoring potential of supervisory figures, suggest that they should also actively encourage mentoring activity by supervisors. Results confirm that supervisors have much to offer subordinates with regard to career-related assistance. Indeed, they are the preferred provider of most career related assistance when compared to mentors. Additionally, supervisors have been seen to provide psychosocial mentoring functions to a great extent, particularly where personal and organisational factors facilitated this. Organisations should be aware of the supervisor's potential role and encourage interaction between supervisors and subordinates which facilitate the provision of such assistance.

Other considerations appear important with regard to the establishment of mentoring programs. As shown in section 4.3, several organisations provided training for both the protégé and the mentor at the commencement of the program. This enabled both parties to establish their relationship with some knowledge of how it may work and how their interaction may lead to mentoring benefits.

Several respondents felt that this training should have been extended to include their supervisors, as they would be affected to some extent by the existence of the mentoring relationship. Some respondents were of the view that as they were taking time during work to meet with their mentor, then the supervisor deserved some pay-off for this. Respondents believed that the supervisor would appreciate being included in the process.

Given the findings of this study with respect to nearly all functions, as supervisors provided greater mentoring assistance, organisations would do well to include supervisors in pre-mentoring training. While this could be undertaken as a courtesy to both the subordinate and their mentor, The findings of this study imply that the supervisor should be included, not merely as a courtesy but because they may additionally perform the role of mentor to the subordinate.

The importance of the supervisor's inclusion in pre-program training was evident in respondent's comments. Many felt that any training of the supervisor would lead to interaction between the supervisor and the mentor and that if the supervisor was active in the relationship he/she could provide a vital third party view, complementing the work of the mentor and respondent by shedding light on the respondent's development. This notion is consistent with principles of lifelong learning suggested by Senge (1996).

Additionally, this may open the way for the establishment and maintenance of communication between the three parties in a triangular arrangement focused on

the development of the respondent. Respondents felt that what they had achieved through their association with the mentor may be useful knowledge to the supervisor and thus may be shared within this triangular developmental forum. Supporting this notion, many respondents enjoyed the opportunity to obtain feedback from two diverse sources, the mentor and the supervisor. Indeed, the supervisor may be on an equal footing with the mentor, in terms of mentoring benefit, given the results of this study. Of course, within this arrangement some issues will remain confidential between respondent and mentor or between respondent and supervisor.

These notions are consistent with the proposals of Brookes (1994) regarding three-way mentoring arrangements and may be particularly relevant to organisations with relatively flat organisational structures. This is because team-based structures in such organisations may facilitate the establishment and maintenance of triangular mentoring arrangements between the respondent, mentor and supervisor which have as their aim the development of the individual.

Several organisations in this study utilised mentors who were located within other Public Sector organisations. It was evident from the comments of interviewees that these mentors were often not in a position to provide many of the mentoring functions that respondents required. While valid reasons determined that the organisations chose external mentors, these findings imply that organisations may be better suited to engage internal mentors. Results suggest that such arrangements may facilitate a wider provision of mentoring functions. Additionally, the internal mentor may be better placed to contribute to the triangular mentoring arrangements discussed earlier, based on their comparatively greater knowledge of the respondent's work.

Many respondents commented that they had learnt a great deal from their initial foray into mentoring, elaborating that they may perhaps be able to gain a great deal

more from later opportunities. Perhaps as designers and implementers of mentoring in organisations, we should recognise that by facilitating formal mentoring we may be encouraging informal mentoring to emerge also.

While many organisations are aware of the benefits of informal mentoring amongst its members, many are unsure about encouraging it. The road to developing the full potential of informal mentoring may lie in the establishment of formal programs which allow participants to become active in mentoring which later may stimulate them to develop their own mentoring relationships with others, as many respondents in this study have done.

The existence of informal mentoring in this study, although not the basis for investigation, appeared from respondent's comments to be substantial. Informal mentoring took place with peers as mentoring figures. Thus, this study implies that while relationships may exist between mentors and respondents as well as supervisors and respondents for the purpose of mentoring, peers may also provide mentoring benefits.

These findings are consistent with Kram (1983a) and Kram and Isabella (1995) and suggest that the triangular mentoring arrangements discussed earlier may be extended to include the assistance provided by peers. Such notions, consistent with Career Mentoring (Kram, 1983a), suggest group mentoring, a concept only recently investigated. Group mentoring may provide considerable advantages to organisational members who operate in work teams or unit structures, as many in this study did. As there was very little evidence of classical mentoring in this research, the role of multiple individuals in providing mentoring assistance may suggest peer mentoring has a place in such organisations and may be worthy of consideration.

Establishment of group mentoring arrangements may be beneficial given the implications of Situational Leadership Theory to the findings of this study. As was suggested in section 5.3.11.2, multiple individuals were utilised by respondents in order to gain mentoring benefits. In regard to group mentoring, respondents may utilise any group members for mentoring benefits, as determined by their level of maturity on specific tasks. Thus an initiative by organisations to establish group mentoring would consider the maturity of respondents in the way they manage both their own development and the tasks they must complete in their job.

Generally, implications which arise from the results of this study centre on the manner in which organisations establish mentoring programs, the inherent definitions they adopt and the arrangements governing interaction between those parties concerned. Other implications include the recognition of mentoring benefits which may be provided by other parties such as supervisors and peers leading to the consideration of group mentoring programs.

6.4 Recommendations for future research

Many research possibilities stem from this and other studies into mentoring, studies which would consider the implications raised in section 6.2. These focus on the triangular arrangements for mentoring proposed earlier and the contribution of traditional mentors, supervisors and peers in group mentoring arrangements.

The adoption of triangular mentoring arrangements suggested in section 6.2, which utilise supervisors and mentors in association with the subordinate, should be examined. While the existence of such arrangements is unclear at this stage, longitudinal studies aimed at examining the way in which supervisors and mentors are able to work together to enhance the development of the subordinate are recommended. These investigations may involve case study techniques to provide an insight into the manner and extent of assistance by both parties as they work together in analysing the subordinate's progress and development. While the

current study examined the provision of mentoring functions by both mentors and supervisors, the recommended study should focus on the collaborative provision of such functions; that is, collaboration by the three parties concerned.

This study has identified several barriers which hinder the provision of mentoring functions by both mentors and supervisors. These same barriers may exist with respect to triangular mentoring arrangements, as may others. The identification of such barriers to collaborative mentoring arrangements would form an integral element of such a study. This would enable an assessment of the integrated role of supervisors and mentors as lifelong learning leaders of the subordinate.

Considering the arrangements proposed earlier, this study recommends an investigation of group mentoring arrangements which have been formally established in organisations. While preliminary investigation as a basis of this study showed that such arrangements were rare, they do exist in business to the extent that they may be studied in depth.

Such an investigation may be focused on the mentoring contribution of all parties to the group, that is traditional mentors, supervisors and peers, in order to ascertain the extent to which assistance is provided by each of these to the mentoring benefit of the respondent. This would be best undertaken in organisations which maintain unit based work arrangements. Such a study would dovetail into this study as it would provide not only further clarification of the mentoring contribution of supervisors as mentors, but also investigate the role of peers in sufficient detail so as to assess their contribution. This investigation may provide greater knowledge in an area investigated by the studies of Kram and Isabella (1985) in an examination of the contributions of peers in the mentoring process and also the "interactive mentoring groups" suggested by Kaye and Jacobson (1995: 24).

In the same vein, a contrast between the provision of mentoring functions in the traditional one-on-one mentoring arrangements and those which are based on group mentoring practices may also be examined.

The influence of organisational factors on the provision of mentoring functions was discussed in chapter five. While this study related some of these factors to the provision of mentoring functions as expressed by interview respondents, other studies may go further into investigating the relationships that specific organisational factors and elements of mentoring arrangements have with the mentor's and supervisor's ability to provide mentoring assistance. While some recommendations have been based on the findings of this study with regard to organisational factors, the author feels that further investigation into the role of such factors is both warranted and required in order to describe more fully the provision of mentoring functions.

In examining the elements of mentoring arrangements, several investigations may add to the growing body of knowledge. Indeed, studies which examine the location of the mentor and the influence this has on the provision of mentoring functions are recommended. It may also be possible to examine the methods by which respondents select their mentors and the possible existence of a relationship between the expectations of the protégé and the provision of mentoring functions by mentors, supervisors and peers. Such an investigation would necessarily be achieved through examining the perceptions of both mentors and protégés, rather than just protégés as this study has done.

An examination of the effectiveness of forced mentoring relationships in contrast to those which are formed by choice is also recommended. While both types of relationships existed in this study, this factor was not one under investigation. However, comments of interview respondents suggest that this factor may have some influence on the provision of mentoring functions.

Such a study would differ from that of Noe (1988) which examined assigned and non-assigned mentoring relationships. The focus of the recommended study would be to examine those mentoring relationships where protégés volunteered their involvement in contrast to those where compulsory involvement was stipulated by the organisation.

Many interview respondents in this study indicated that they had not sought assistance in some mentoring functions due to their long period of tenure with the organisation. For example, Respondent 17 commented that she did not require either her supervisor or mentor to perform the function of Advocate within her organisation as she had been there for sufficient time for most senior colleagues to be aware of her work. Additionally, other studies have suggested that the Role Model function may be more keenly sought by employees newer to the organisation than by those whose tenure is longer. Thus, this study recommends an investigation of the relationship between the tenure of the protégé and the provision of the myriad of mentoring functions examined in this study, suggesting that some functions may not be sought by those with longer tenure in the organisation.

6.5 Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the provision of mentoring functions by supervisors and mentors by examining mentoring relationships in several Public Sector organisations in Australia. In order to measure the mentoring contribution to subordinates by both supervisors and mentors, comments of subordinates were sought. Through both quantitative and qualitative research, subordinates described their supervisor's and mentor's assistance in terms of the ten mentoring functions which were used as a basis for this study.

It was hypothesised that supervisors would provide greater assistance in the realm of career related functions while mentors would provide greater psychosocial assistance. Additionally, this study anticipated that factors including age difference, demographic proximity and levels of interaction would influence the provision of mentoring functions by both supervisors and mentors.

Findings suggested that supervisors did provide greater mentoring assistance with regard to the majority of career related functions. They were also the respondent's preferred provider of these functions. However, supervisors also provided greater psychosocial mentoring assistance, in the case of most functions, despite the fact that mentors were generally the respondent's preferred provider of these functions.

While some relationships were found to be significant between the factors of age difference, demographic proximity and levels of interaction and the provision of mentoring benefits by mentors, there was little evidence of such relationships with regard to supervisors.

The focus of this study also extended to include the investigation of barriers to mentoring. Respondents highlighted several barriers which effectively lessened the mentoring benefits provided to them by both supervisors and mentors.

The findings of this study uncover many implications for organisations which embark on mentoring and recommendations which may direct future investigations into mentoring. These implications and recommendations focus generally on the inclusion and recognition of the supervisor as mentor, the extension of traditional approaches to mentoring to include both supervisors and other colleagues as well as the development of models which may facilitate these approaches.

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Appendix One Research Questionnaire

SUPERVISORY/NON-SUPERVISORY MENTORING RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent

This study is being undertaken in order to provide information about the effectiveness of mentoring programs which have been established in Public Sector organizations. Specifically the information collected will help to explain the functions that mentors are perceived to provide for their protégés. This will allow a comparison of the benefits of mentoring programs which utilize either the protégé's immediate supervisor as a mentor as opposed to some other person as mentor.

Your help in providing information about your mentoring relationship is greatly appreciated. Of course all the information you provide is confidential as is the identity of both your mentor and your organization. Involvement in the study will not prejudice your mentoring relationship or your position in the organization.

Results from this research will be made available to your organization at the conclusion of the study.

Please feel free to ask any questions of the researcher. Inquiries can be directed to:
Mr. Ric Dunstan, Edith Cowan University, Faculty of Business, on [REDACTED]

Please take a moment to make the authorization below.

I (the participant) have read the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this activity, realizing I may withdraw at any time.

I agree that the research gathered for this study may be published provided I am not identifiable.

Participant's signature _____

Date _____

These questions relate to you as the respondent. Please circle the number corresponding to your response category.

- Sex 1. M Age: 1. 18 - 25 5. 41 - 45
 2. F 2. 26 - 30 6. 46 - 50
 3. 31 - 35 7. 51 - 55
 4. 36 - 40 8. > 55

What is your position in your organization? _____

What is your mentor's position in the organization? _____

Is your mentor also your immediate supervisor or boss? (Please circle) Yes No

What is the approximate age difference between you and your mentor?

- | | |
|-------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 one year | 4 seven-ten years |
| 2 two/three years | 5 eleven-fifteen years |
| 3 four/six years | 6 greater than fifteen years |

What is the approximate age difference between you and your Supervisor?

- | | |
|-------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 one year | 4 seven-ten years |
| 2 two/three years | 5 eleven-fifteen years |
| 3 four/six years | 6 greater than fifteen years |

How closely together (geographically) do you and your mentor work?

- | | |
|---------------------|--------------------|
| 1 adjoining offices | 4 same town/suburb |
| 2 same floor | 5 same city |
| 3 same building | 6 same state |

How closely together (geographically) do you and your supervisor work?

- | | |
|---------------------|--------------------|
| 1 adjoining offices | 4 same town/suburb |
| 2 same floor | 5 same city |
| 3 same building | 6 same state |

I talk with my mentor (either formally or informally):

- | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------|
| 1 several times daily | 2 twice daily |
| 3 daily | 4 every two days |
| 5 twice a week | 6 weekly |
| 7 less frequently than weekly | |

I talk with my supervisor (either formally or informally):

- | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------|
| 1 several times daily | 2 twice daily |
| 3 daily | 4 every two days |
| 5 twice a week | 6 weekly |
| 7 less frequently than weekly | |

Please respond to the following statements by indicating the extent to which you agree with each statement. If you strongly agree with the statement you should circle a 5 on the number scale at the right of the statement. If you strongly disagree you should circle the 1. Responses 2, 3 and 4 correspond to feelings of disagree, not sure and agree respectively.

If you make an error simply cross out the first response clearly and indicate the favoured response.

1- Strongly disagree	2-Disagree	3-Not sure	4-Agree	5-Strongly agree
----------------------	------------	------------	---------	------------------

- | | |
|---|-----------|
| 1. My mentor provides written feedback regarding my performance. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 2. I do not invite my mentor to social gatherings. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 3. I would prefer my mentor, rather than my supervisor, to evaluate my performance at work. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 4. I feel that my mentor has not been responsible for increasing my exposure in the organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 5. My mentor demonstrates to me the skills I need for my job. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 6. My supervisor stimulates me to develop new ideas and engage in creative thought. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 7. I do <u>not</u> see my mentor as a source of inspiration and new ideas. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 8. I am comfortable discussing with my supervisor any concerns that I have about my job. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 9. I tell my supervisor things I wouldn't tell most other members of my organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 10. I invite my supervisor to social gatherings. | 1-2-3-4-5 |

1- Strongly disagree	2-Disagree	3-Not sure	4-Agree	5-Strongly agree
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- | | |
|--|-----------|
| 11. I feel comfortable discussing with my supervisor any conflicts that I have with others in my organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 12. My mentor comments on what others in the organization think of my performance. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 13. My supervisor increases my exposure in the organization by making others aware of my achievements. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 14. My mentor gives me advice about how to finish the tasks and projects that I need to complete at work. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 15. My mentor helps me understand appropriate ways of doing things in my organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 16. I would prefer my supervisor, not my mentor, to teach me the skills I need for my job. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 17. My supervisor helps me deal with difficult relationships in my organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 18. My mentor is a good role model for work performance. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 19. I believe my supervisor has made others in the organization aware of my skills and abilities. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 20. My supervisor provides feedback regarding my relationships with others in my organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 21. I look to my supervisor as a guide to showing what is appropriate behavior in my organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 22. My mentor often motivates me to achieve my best in my job. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 23. I see my mentor as the type of person I would like to be. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 24. My mentor provides help and advice with aspects of my personal life. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 25. I am comfortable discussing with my mentor any concerns that I have about my job. | 1-2-3-4-5 |

1- Strongly disagree	2-Disagree	3-Not sure	4-Agree	5-Strongly agree
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- | | |
|--|-----------|
| 26. My mentor and I discuss my performance against goals which were determined by us at an earlier stage. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 27. I would prefer my mentor, instead of my supervisor, to demonstrate the tasks which I need for my job. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 28. My supervisor gives me oral feedback about new things I try in my job. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 29. My supervisor helps me resolve problems that I have with the organization or my colleagues. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 30. I look to others in my organization for support and feedback rather than my supervisor. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 31. My mentor has helped me settle into the organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 32. I feel comfortable discussing with my mentor any conflicts that I have with others in my organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 33. My supervisor has suggested new approaches I could take to completing my work. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 34. I discuss my career advancement with my supervisor. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 35. I often attend social gatherings with my supervisor. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 36. My mentor provides help dealing with any conflicts I have with others in the organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 37. I would rather my mentor, not my supervisor, advise me on my career advancement. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 38. My mentor encourages me to be creative and develop my ideas. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 39. My supervisor does <u>not</u> complete written evaluations of my performance. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 40. My mentor has demonstrated to me the tasks and abilities necessary for my job. | 1-2-3-4-5 |

1- Strongly disagree	2-Disagree	3-Not sure	4-Agree	5-Strongly agree
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- | | |
|--|-----------|
| 41. My mentor helps me see possibilities for my career which I have not anticipated. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 42. My supervisor helps me understand appropriate ways of doing things in my organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 43. My mentor encourages me to reflect on my performance. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 44. I feel that my supervisor is better placed to motivate me rather than my mentor. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 45. I see my supervisor as the type of person I would like to be. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 46. My supervisor has demonstrated to me tasks and abilities which are necessary for my job. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 47. I believe my mentor has made others in the organization aware of my skills and abilities. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 48. My supervisor provides help and advice with aspects of my personal life. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 49. My supervisor gives me advice on how to achieve certain goals in my organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 50. My mentor has commented orally on my competence in achieving tasks. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 51. My supervisor and I have set specific goals regarding my work performance. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 52. I would rather my supervisor, not my mentor, make others aware of my achievements. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 53. I believe that more senior people are aware of my work largely because of my supervisor. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 54. Working together my mentor and I have set specific goals for me regarding my performance. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 55. I am able to ask my supervisor for assistance in my relationships with others in the organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |

1- Strongly disagree	2-Disagree	3-Not sure	4-Agree	5-Strongly agree
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|--|-----------|
| 56. I believe that more senior people are aware of my work largely because of my mentor. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 57. I discuss my career advancement with my mentor. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 58. I feel that my mentor increases my exposure in the organization by letting others know of my achievements. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 59. My mentor provides feedback regarding my relationships with others in my organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 60. My supervisor provides written feedback regarding my performance. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 61. I would rather my supervisor, not my mentor, give me advice on my relationships with others in the organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 62. My supervisor has not suggested new approaches to the way in which I do my work. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 63. My supervisor encourages me to be creative and develop my ideas. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 64. My mentor does not demonstrate to me the skills that I need for my job. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 65. I interact socially with my mentor in one on one situations. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 66. I do not look to my supervisor to demonstrate behaviours which are appropriate to my organisation. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 67. I am able to ask my mentor for assistance in my relationships with others in the organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 68. I would rather my mentor, not my supervisor, tell me what others in the organisation think of me and my work. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 69. I feel that my supervisor motivates me to achieve my best in my job. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 70. I do <u>not</u> tell my supervisor my inner feelings and emotions.. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 71. My mentor provides me with additional responsibilities at work. | 1-2-3-4-5 |

1- Strongly disagree	2-Disagree	3-Not sure	4-Agree	5-Strongly agree
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- | | |
|--|-----------|
| 72. I tell my mentor things I wouldn't tell most other members of my organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 73. I look to my mentor as a guide of appropriate behavior in my organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 74. My mentor, not my supervisor, is my preference for seeking organizational information from. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 75. My supervisor provides me with additional responsibilities at work. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 76. My supervisor has helped me settle into the organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 77. I invite my mentor to social gatherings. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 78. My supervisor gives me advice about completing my tasks at work | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 79. My supervisor comments on what others in the organization think of my performance. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 80. My mentor gives me advice on how to achieve certain goals in my organization. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 81. I do not discuss career advancement with my supervisor. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 82. My supervisor is a good role model for work performance. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 83. I prefer to share confidential feelings and emotions with my mentor, not my supervisor. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 84. My mentor helps me resolve problems that I have with the organization or my colleagues. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 85. My supervisor does not give me information regarding my relationships with others in my organization | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 86. My supervisor encourages me to reflect on my performance. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 87. I often attend social gatherings with my mentor. | 1-2-3-4-5 |
| 88. My mentor, not my supervisor, is my preferred role model. | 1-2-3-4-5 |

1- Strongly disagree	2-Disagree	3-Not sure	4-Agree	5-Strongly agree
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89. My supervisor provides help dealing with any conflicts I have with others in the organization. 1-2-3-4-5
90. I interact socially with my supervisor in one on one situations. 1-2-3-4-5
91. I look to others in my organization for support and feedback rather than my mentor. 1-2-3-4-5
92. My supervisor has commented orally on my competence in achieving tasks. 1-2-3-4-5
93. My mentor has suggested new approaches I could take to completing my work. 1-2-3-4-5
94. My mentor gives me oral feedback about new things I try in my job. 1-2-3-4-5
95. I see my supervisor as a source of new ideas and inspiration. 1-2-3-4-5
96. My supervisor demonstrates to me the skills that I need for my job. 1-2-3-4-5
97. I prefer to socialize with my supervisor rather than my mentor. 1-2-3-4-5
98. I see my mentor as a source of new ideas and inspiration 1-2-3-4-5
99. My mentor does not generally explain appropriate ways of doing things in my organization. 1-2-3-4-5
100. My supervisor helps me see career possibilities which I have not anticipated. 1-2-3-4-5

Would you like to make any further comments about the functions provided to you by your mentor or supervisor?

Thank you for your assistance with this study.

Appendix Two

Questionnaire Results

Descriptive Statistics

Item	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
1	78	3.00	1.00	4.00	1.4744	.9359	.876
2	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.0256	1.3189	1.740
3	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	1.8846	1.0566	1.116
4	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.0385	1.3905	1.934
5	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.0000	1.3387	1.792
6	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.7051	1.1855	1.405
7	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.2949	1.3590	1.847
8	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	4.1282	.8583	.737
9	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.6538	1.1824	1.398
10	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.5000	1.2562	1.578
11	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.5385	1.0406	1.083
12	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.5641	1.3052	1.704
13	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.4103	1.0982	1.206
14	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.5000	1.4027	1.968
15	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.3333	1.4385	2.069
16	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.7051	1.1522	1.328
17	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.3077	1.0606	1.125
18	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8846	.9801	.961
19	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6026	.9979	.996
20	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.0256	1.1840	1.402
21	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6282	.9818	.964
22	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.9103	1.2503	1.563
23	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.2949	1.2072	1.457
24	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.0385	1.2215	1.492
25	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.7179	1.1941	1.426
26	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.3462	1.2672	1.606
27	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.1410	1.0158	1.032
28	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.7821	.9486	.900
29	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.4744	1.0029	1.006
30	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.8077	1.0818	1.170
31	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.9744	1.3578	1.843
32	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.3205	1.3338	1.779
33	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6026	1.0236	1.048
34	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6154	1.0473	1.097
35	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.5513	1.2130	1.471
36	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.0385	1.3998	1.960
37	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.9359	1.1548	1.333
38	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.2051	1.3227	1.750
39	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.2692	1.3452	1.810
40	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.5385	1.2347	1.524

Item	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
41	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.1538	1.3777	1.898
42	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.9103	.9284	.862
43	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.2692	1.3061	1.706
44	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.7436	1.0374	1.076
45	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.0897	1.1071	1.226
46	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8974	.9479	.898
47	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.6667	1.1472	1.316
48	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	1.9744	1.1507	1.324
49	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.4359	1.1118	1.236
50	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.6667	1.3159	1.732
51	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.5641	1.2230	1.496
52	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.4744	.9359	.876
53	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.2051	1.1991	1.438
54	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.2308	1.2159	1.479
55	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6410	.9666	.934
56	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.3333	1.1243	1.264
57	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.3333	1.3644	1.861
58	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.5385	1.0154	1.031
59	78	3.00	1.00	4.00	2.3462	1.0042	1.008
60	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.2051	1.1662	1.360
61	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.1282	1.0489	1.100
62	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.7692	.9524	.907
63	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8333	.9455	.894
64	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.2564	1.2937	1.674
65	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.4359	1.3347	1.782
66	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8333	1.0118	1.024
67	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.3846	1.2192	1.487
68	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.7949	1.0489	1.100
69	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6538	1.0298	1.060
70	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.6410	1.3862	1.921
71	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	1.9103	1.0343	1.070
72	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.4487	1.2858	1.653
73	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.3846	1.2298	1.512
74	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.8974	1.3052	1.704
75	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8718	.9851	.970
76	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6026	1.0732	1.152
77	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	1.8205	.9080	.825
78	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	4.0769	.8493	.721
79	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.0897	1.0834	1.174
80	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.2179	1.2958	1.679
81	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.7051	1.1294	1.276
82	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8462	.8690	.755
83	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.6410	1.3482	1.818
84	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.9744	1.2991	1.688
85	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.1026	1.0762	1.158

Item	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
86	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6410	.9531	.908
87	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	1.7821	.9349	.874
88	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.9615	1.2000	1.440
89	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.5000	1.0032	1.006
90	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.0128	1.3240	1.753
91	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.3846	1.1648	1.357
92	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.9615	.9595	.921
93	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.5897	1.2529	1.570
94	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.4359	1.2124	1.470
95	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.5256	1.0285	1.058
96	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8333	.9726	.946
97	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.9487	1.0432	1.088
98	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.2436	1.2811	1.641
99	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.3462	1.3273	1.762
100	78	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.1410	1.1813	1.395

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